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Educational News and Editorial Comment

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WHY THE RUSH FOR COMPULSORY MILITARY TRAINING?

TO READERS at all in touch with current educational discussion, it will not be news to be told that there is much heated debate on the issues of compulsory military training. The advocacy by military authorities of a program of a year's training in peacetime for all youth at eighteen has been greeted with enthusiasm in many quarters and with marked disfavor in others. Educators, while not unanimous, seem to be overwhelmingly opposed to commitment before hostilities cease and before we know what kind of peace we are to have.

Persons seeking effective presentations of the pros and cons of compulsory military training will find one of the best in several articles in the October, 1944, issue of *Educational Leadership*, which devotes most of this particular number to this important problem. Besides an introductory editorial on the subject, this periodical

contains a formulation of issues by Howard E. Wilson; the report of a broadcast by pupils in Grade VII of the Pittsburgh schools, with R. O. Hughes as moderator; favorable arguments by a congressman and a past national vice-commander of the American Legion; and arguments in opposition by a psychologist and by the director of the American Civil Liberties Union.

Among the lay periodicals which have questioned the desirability of early commitment is the liberal weekly, the *New Republic*. Because school people are less likely to see the statements in such a journal than in their professional periodicals, we quote at length two statements that have appeared in the *New Republic* columns. The first is an editorial published in the issue of August 28, 1944.

It is presumably at least four or five years too early to say what sort of military establishment we shall need after both Germany and Japan have been decisively defeated, and how universal military service

fits into such a picture. This whole question depends upon several factors that cannot be predicted with any accuracy at the present time. Will the Allies stick together after the end of the war, or will they fly apart as every other alliance throughout all history has done? Shall we have a genuine league of nations or only an uneasy and temporary military accord which seeks to conceal competing and incompatible imperialistic ambitions? Will the terms inflicted upon our enemies be such as to bring about lasting peace, or only another uneasy interregnum between wars? And above all, are the nations now prepared to follow policies that will bring about continuous high prosperity and full employment at home? (The United States shows little sign of being ready for such a thing.)

Everyone is agreed that we must not be caught again unprepared as we were by the beginning of this war; but it does not automatically follow that a year of basic training on the part of every young man is an adequate answer, or even the proper one. War nowadays is a highly complicated and technical business; many of its most important branches can hardly be learned in a year, starting from scratch. Moreover, its technology changes with great rapidity while a war is in progress, and with substantial speed even in peacetime. A "trained reservist" who has been out of active service for a year or two may prove of little more value than a man who has had no training at all. If we are to depend on a small army which happens to be in training at the moment war starts, plus a large number of men who had basic training a few years ago and have now forgotten most of it, we shall be hardly any better off than we were in 1939, or after Pearl Harbor. If we need to fight at all, common sense would seem to indicate that we ought to have an army of highly trained technicians, an army large enough to carry the full brunt of the fighting for many months. This army should consist of men enlisted for a number of years,

and replacements should be mustered in and mustered out in such a way that, at any given time, new recruits will constitute only a small minority.

This is not to say, however, that there is no value in compulsory national service for all young people. Such a plan, wisely conceived and wisely executed, could be of enormous value to the nation. We see no reason, in the first place, why it should not apply to women as well as men. The United States is almost the only important country involved in this war which has not had compulsory service for women; and the whole trend of our civilization is clearly in favor of equal responsibilities, modified only by the genuine physical and mental differences between the sexes. If Uncle Sam would take every boy and girl in the nation, at the age of nineteen or twenty, give each of them an exhaustive physical examination, correct all medical and dental defects free of charge, give each of them a year of ample and nourishing food, plus proper outdoor exercise, and training in some trade or profession chosen on a basis of individual preference and aptitude, it would be a very good thing for the individual and for the country. The C.C.C. proved this beyond dispute. We should recognize frankly, however, that such training has little to do with military security, and turn it toward creating useful citizens in peacetime.

We should also recognize frankly that if we continue to need a large military establishment for many years to come, all hope of permanent peace is out the window. Either the world will reach a point where no nation needs a big army and navy, or it will certainly go to war again sooner or later, on a vast scale. To keep up a military force and yet remain at peace is as impossible as it is for a drunkard to say that he will take two drinks a day but no more. Either our world-wide psychology will set toward peace so completely that any military establishment will seem fantastic, or we shall go on as we did between 1918 and 1939, haunted

by the consciousness of approaching conflict, but unable to put in positions of authority men with the wisdom, courage, and vision to turn toward peace.

The other quotation from the *New Republic* is a trenchant and cogent letter from "A Doubting G.I. Thomas," published in the issue of October 16, 1944.

While the major powers plan together at Dumbarton Oaks for the future peace of the world the incongruous rumble of the compulsory-military-training bandwagon is audible on America's Main Street.

Why the rush? Is it fair not to allow the 11,000,000 young Americans now experiencing the "benefits" of military training to give their testimony? And is the only alternative to unpreparedness a program of compulsory military training?

The objectives of the proponents of the military program are reasonably acceptable, but how unrealistic they are in believing that a single year of army regimen, following eighteen years of habit fixation by the individuals involved, will produce in those individuals such results as physical fitness, discipline, technical skill, leadership, and good citizenship.

How naïve it is to believe that physical fitness, neglected for eighteen years, can be achieved in a single year of physical culture, army style, much of it at the hands of untrained non-coms. As for discipline, what chance is there that an agency whose own internal discipline is completely autocratic and characterized by quick, unquestioning obedience to orders from above can develop in young America a democratic type of conduct characterized by rational behavior without external compulsion?

As to leadership, ask G.I. Joe how best to get along in the army and don't be alarmed if, without hesitation, he says, "Keep your eyes and ears open, your trap shut, and don't volunteer for a damned thing." He'll be quoting a lieutenant's advice to a group of

recruits. Does this sound conducive to the development of leadership?

Yes, you'll get a little technical training from a year of the army program, but it will be wrapped in copious amounts of "gold-bricking," a natural product of compulsory military training. And don't expect too much good citizenship from tearing young John Q. Public from the stabilizing ties of home, community, and friends and placing him in barracks where indecency, bad manners, profanity, sexual laxity, drinking, and racial and religious intolerance are unrestrained.

Might it not be more realistic (and cheaper) to kill two birds with one stone, by giving a mandate, along with support and authority to carry it out, to American educators to strengthen the program of public education in such ways as to provide for the desired results (by adding a "national service year" if need be)? Why place our confidence now in a program new to the American scene—compulsory military training in peacetime?

Now is the time for someone to put a sprag in one of the wheels of the military-training bandwagon and, while it is slowed, run the American model, an improved program of education, back into view. It promises to be a safer conveyance for the rough roads ahead.

As the editor of the *New Republic* and many others contend, the country cannot know what military forces will be required until it is known what kind of peace we are to have, and we are certainly still remote from achieving a peace. However, the proponents of compulsory training will strive to secure commitment while we are still at war and in a bellicose mood. They are aware that it is in the American tradition to shake off militarism with the passing of the crisis. The opponents of compulsory training may well

counsel a strategy of delay in action on the proposals. They can do so in good conscience, since compulsory military training will continue in force while the war is in progress and since the necessity for its continuance can be, as has been advocated, considered in relation to the kind of peace that is achieved.

JUNIOR-COLLEGE ENROLMENTS BEGIN RECOVERY

THE November, 1944, issue of the *Junior College Journal* reports evidence to the effect that junior-college enrolments, instead of continuing the marked decline of the past few years, have begun to move up again. The secretary of the American Association of Junior Colleges, Walter C. Eells, who regularly gathers information for the annual *Junior College Directory*, included in his request sent out early in the school year the question, "How does enrolment this fall compare with enrolment at the same time last fall?" Following is the secretary's textual interpretation of the returns:

Replies were received from more than half of the country's junior colleges by October 3. Of these, 64 per cent, almost two-thirds, reported an increase in enrolment, 20 per cent reported "no change," and only 16 per cent, less than one-sixth, reported a decrease. Last year at about the same time 77 per cent of the institutions reported decreased enrolments.

In all likelihood, this recovery is the first spurt of an unprecedented development of junior colleges over a period of several years—not only of

enrolments in existing junior colleges but also of new institutions. At least, both events and recent prophecies are headed in that direction.

TWO DIRECTIVES FOR THE JUNIOR- COLLEGE CURRICULUM

TWO publications of moment for the curriculum in junior colleges have lately become available. Each deals with an area that should not be overlooked in planning programs for the junior-college level. One of these publications is *Vocational-Technical Training for Industrial Occupations*, which is issued by the United States Office of Education as Vocational Division Bulletin No. 228 and may be purchased for forty cents (not in stamps) sent to the Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D.C. The bulletin is the report of a Consulting Committee on Vocational-Technical Training appointed by the United States Commissioner of Education. It was prepared by a working committee under the chairmanship of Lynn A. Emerson, professor of industrial education and assistant dean of the College of Engineering at Cornell University.

The bulletin opens with a chapter on "Characteristics of Vocational-Technical Training," which identifies and describes industrial occupations lying in the region between the skilled trades and the engineering professions. Persons in these occupations are labeled "technicians." Preparation for such occupations, when provided, would lie appropriately at the

junior-college level. The major contributing chapters of the report are "The Nature of Industry's Need for Vocational-Technical Training," "Present Programs and Facilities for Vocational-Technical Training," and "Planning Programs for Vocational-Technical Training." The first of these displays the results of a large-scale inquiry in numerous industries to identify the extent of the need for technicians. An impressive conclusion from this portion of the investigation is that, on the average, in the industries represented, the number of technicians needed is 5.2 times the number of engineers. The ratio ranges widely from industry to industry, the lowest being 2.0 for hydro-electric development and the highest, 20.0 for lumbering and wood processing. The chapter on present programs and facilities indicates that a variety of types of institutions have made beginnings and give promise of affording the preparation required. Readers interested in the junior college will find that their institution is identified as one of strong beginnings and large promise in this field. The content of the chapter on planning programs is clearly indicated by its subdivisions, some of which are "Industrial Surveys To Determine Needs," "Techniques of Industrial Surveys," "Surveys of Training Facilities," "Determination of Program Patterns," and "Curriculum Construction."

The second of the publications is called "A Tentative Statement concerning Home Economics in Junior

Colleges." It is a document of eighty-four mimeographed pages published by the Burgess Publishing Company at 426 South Sixth Street, Minneapolis, Minnesota. The statement is indicated as having been "prepared by a Committee of the Department of Colleges and Universities of the American Home Economics Association at the request of the American Association of Junior Colleges." The committee preparing the statement had as chairman Ivol Spafford, a leader in the home-economics field and formerly curriculum director of the General College at the University of Minnesota.

Chapter titles suggesting the nature of the content are "A Point of View concerning Home Economics in Junior Colleges," "Building the Curriculum," "The Junior College Student," "Educating for Personal and Family Living," "Educating for Homemaking," "Home Economics and Gainful Employment," "Learning Experiences," "The Learning Environment," and "The Teacher in the Junior College." The publication contains also a twelve-page "Reference List." The point of view in the monograph may be indicated by quoting a paragraph from the Introduction:

Stress is placed throughout . . . on the necessity for each junior college to study its own problems, know its own students and its own community, set its own purposes, and develop its own program to the end that the young men and women it serves may be better able to meet their own personal problems, live more successfully with their families, and carry on their jobs as

homemakers, wage-earners, and citizens with greater personal and social satisfaction. In such an educational program, home economics has an important part to play.

Because of the special areas represented, the character of their content, and their general timeliness in view of the impending growth of junior colleges, administrators and instructors in these institutions should familiarize themselves with the content and recommendations of these two publications.

HELPS TO CONSUMER EDUCATION IN THE SCHOOLS

PAMPHLETS are at hand from two sources working at problems in consumer education. One is from the Consumer Education Study of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, discusses aids to teaching furnished by business institutions, and is published under the caption, *Commercial Supplementary Teaching Materials*. In his introduction, Thomas H. Briggs, director of the Consumer Education Study, outlines as follows the content of the pamphlet:

The monograph discusses the reasons why business offers materials to the schools, considers the validity of the objections to use of them, presents the purposes for which teachers may use them, and proposes criteria and suggestions for good practice which, on the one hand, will aid in the preparation of materials that contribute maximally to education and at the same time are unobjectionable, and, on the other, will guide teachers in the selection of those that can ethically be used with promise of most help.

The director says also that the study offers two services: (1) to "ad-

vise business when it is planning and preparing materials for use by schools" and (2) to "transmit to business suggestions by teachers of kinds of materials that they would like to have further to enrich and enliven the curriculum." The content of the entire pamphlet warrants our encouraging administrators and teachers of many subjects in secondary schools to secure copies for careful reading. Single copies may be obtained free on application to the Consumer Education Study, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C. However, liberty is taken here to list the eight purposes of the use of commercial materials in the schools and the two criteria applicable to them. The purposes are:

1. To supplement what is available in textbooks or in the library. . . .
2. To give to students what is not available in textbooks or standard library works. . . .
3. To present different points of view. . . .
4. To give students a sense of actuality. . . .
5. To accustom youth to use, and to use intelligently, nonschool materials. . . .
6. To arouse interest by the use of nonschool materials. . . .
7. To develop in individual students interests that will lead to intellectual satisfactions and in some cases to specialization. . . .
8. To furnish clinical materials.

The two criteria are (1) contribution to the educational program and (2) absence of sales promotion.

The other type of publication comes from the Cooperative League of the

U.S.A. It is mentioned under consumer education because one of the acknowledged purposes of co-operative organizations is education of the consumer. The Cooperative League (with one of its offices at 608 South Dearborn Street, Chicago, Illinois) has prepared for distribution to schools and teachers two pamphlets, *A School Project on Consumers' Co-operation as an Aid for Teaching the Subject in Schools* and *A Handbook for Junior Co-operatives: How To Organize and Get Started*. Both publications, which may be purchased from the Cooperative League at ten cents each, should be helpful in acquainting youth with important phases of the co-operative movement. The movement has expanded to such proportions that all should have some acquaintance with it.

A POCKET-SIZE POSTWAR PREDICTION

EVERYONE seems to be trying his hand at prophecy of the postwar world, and the prophecies range through all phases of our national life. While numerous prophecies of postwar secondary education are extant, it is hoped that adding still another prediction to the parade will not be considered an unpardonable offense, especially as this one is limited to pocket size. Other predictions have comprehended many aspects of the school; this one is restricted to four major areas, namely, enrolments, curriculum, guidance, and organization. The vertical span of secondary education represented here extends through

junior high school, senior high school, and junior-college levels. At several points it is necessary to differentiate predictions for high-school and junior-college years.

Enrolments.—It is apparent that the increased availability of adults for employment in postwar years will bring youth back to school, and high-school enrolments will rather promptly rise to and exceed pre-war levels. Although subsequently the increases, especially in urban areas, will feel the effects of the shrinking birth rates of recent decades, for the country as a whole the increasing availability of educational opportunities for rural youth generally and for Negroes in the South will operate as an offsetting influence, and total enrolments at the high-school level will continue for some years after the spurt of postwar growth to rise steadily, even if not strikingly.

Expectations are that enrolments at the junior-college level are due for unprecedented increments. All existing institutions will share in the influx, although in varying proportions. However, proposals for establishing and developing new units operating at the junior-college level promise to account for a large portion of the total growth, as proposals have been made in several states for state-wide systems of junior colleges or other institutions, such as technical institutes and area schools, to serve youth at the junior-college level. Also, numerous individual communities and districts have under consideration postwar upward extensions into junior-college years.

A single potent factor may hinder the junior-college expansion foreshadowed by current proposals and expectations, and that is the program of compulsory military training being advocated in some quarters. Putting in force a plan for compulsory training will catch youth just at the age of completing high school and entering the first college year or employment. By thus taking youth out of circulation for a full year, the contemplated development of junior colleges will be seriously scotched.

Without some potent retarding influence, like a program of compulsory military training, schools serving youth at later high-school and junior-college levels will be challenged to their utmost to keep pace with the demand for suitable facilities and programs.

Curriculum.—Prospective trends in curriculum may be considered in two groups, namely, wartime changes likely to survive into the postwar period and pre-war changes likely to resume or exceed their earlier rates of development.

Without taking space to review all wartime curriculum modifications in high schools, it may be said that some will hardly survive the years of the war while others will continue and even expand in the postwar period. Among the latter will be the focus on aeronautics, to which the term "air conditioning" has been applied. Improved communication, the global nature of the war, and the search for a basis for lasting peace will bring em-

phasis on efforts at international understanding and co-operation. Geography should assume a magnified position in this expansion.

Identification of pre-war trends likely to be resumed during postwar years is aided by consideration of frequent types of innovations during the years immediately preceding the current world conflict. For several years this journal has featured in this section a "Here and There among the High Schools," in which are reported innovations of many sorts introduced by secondary schools in all sections of the country. The area of school-keeping most frequently represented in these innovations is curriculum. The October, 1938, issue of the *School Review* generously illustrated the innovations and undertook simple generalization of the trends disclosed. These trends were set down as closer relation to life and living, adaptation to differing abilities among pupils, greater recognition of pupil interest, and an accompanying disruption of traditional subject boundaries.

Perhaps it is desirable to elaborate a bit on the first of these trends by indicating that many of the innovations reported involved sharing in the life, or activities, of the community. Here would certainly be included the arrangements for work experience which have been looked on with favor by many school people and laymen. Sharing in occupational activity is, however, only the beginning of participation in life and activities of the community. The innovations reported

include several instances outside the limits of work life, particularly in the civic and social domain, and we shall surely have further progress in this direction, as well as in other areas, such as health, recreation, etc.

One pre-war curriculum trend at the junior-college level certain to be projected into the postwar period is the movement for "terminal education," which as it is developing includes both terminal occupational and terminal general education. Although on the surface the movement may not seem closely consonant with the generalization of trends at the high-school level previously reviewed, an intensive comparison beneath the surface discloses that the trends at the high-school and junior-college levels have much in common.

Guidance.—We may take it for granted that, if the developments so far reviewed take place, they will be accompanied by rapid extension of provisions for guidance and student-personnel activities. Increased popularization and curriculum change adapted to that popularization demand expansion of the concept and program of guidance. Moreover, one of the most marked pre-war trends in the schools was the expansion of programs of guidance, and further development will be merely a projection of a well-established movement. Brevity of reference to this development in this thumbnail prediction is no indication of its prospective prominence in the secondary school of the future.

Organization.—The phase of school

organization in mind here is what may be referred to as vertical organization, or the succession of units in our secondary-school arrangements. The two pre-war trends pushing for further modification were junior high school reorganization and the increase in numbers of local public junior colleges. It is not generally known that the extension of junior high school reorganization was continuing at a steady rate up to the outbreak of hostilities. Junior colleges as parts of local school systems were also increasing in number. These contemporary developments were forcing the issue of a preferred pattern of organization to displace a more or less clumsy articulation, and during pre-war years there emerged, in a dozen communities in five states, commitments to a 6-4-4 pattern of realignment. If preferences of administrators in systems maintaining junior colleges (see the April, 1944, issue of the *School Review*) presage trends, commitments to this pattern will pile up in postwar years, and systems with six-year elementary schools, four-year junior high schools, and four-year junior colleges will multiply at an accelerated rate. The movement has the support of extensive objective evidence.

In making this prediction, one would be foolhardy to assume that this country ever will see a single universal organizational pattern in operation. We have never had universality in this regard, and universality may not even be desirable in a rapidly changing society. However, we have

had *dominant* patterns, the latest of which—dominant in educational thought and almost so in practice—has been the 6-3-3 organization. It is altogether likely that within a quarter-century the 6-4-4 plan of organization will be dominant in both educational thought and practice.

Here are far-reaching changes for the postwar period. To recapitulate briefly: they promise plenary popularization through high-school and even junior-college years; curriculum modification that not merely plugs serious deficiencies disclosed by the present international crisis but will go much further toward achieving closer relationship to life and living, better adaptation to differing abilities among pupils, and greater recognition of pupil interests. All this will be accompanied by readjustment of subject boundaries, marked expansion of guidance programs, and progress toward a pattern of reorganization broadening the base of American secondary education—a pattern culminating in the 6-4-4 plan. These anticipated developments can hardly be merely the product of wishful thinking, since they are backed by potent pre-war trends of thought and practice. They have further support as a group of predictions in that they are functionally interdependent, since popularization must rely on curriculum modification, which in turn can only be made effective by development of the guidance program. Finally, all these changes will be facilitated by an in-

stitutional organization yielding maximum flexibility.

USEFULNESS IN PAPER COVERS

Planning for youth In this section of the November, 1944, issue of the *School Review*, Professor Tyler summarized at some length a recent outstanding report of the Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Youth*. There has since been issued from the office of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals (1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C.) a document, *Planning for American Youth*, which is both like and different from the Educational Policies Commission's report. It is subtitled "An Educational Program for Youth of Secondary-School Age" and is put forward as "A Summary of *Education for All American Youth*." In conceptual emphasis and basic content, the later publication is in harmony with its forerunner, except that it gives more attention to the needs of youth of lower secondary-school age. However, in manner of presentation it is strikingly different, in that it makes extensive use of graphic and pictorial devices. It follows the forerunner again in proposing programs of secondary education for Farmville and American City, presumably typical rural and urban situations. Likewise, it assumes an eight-year span of secondary education (Grades VII-XIV) without committing the report to any specific pat-

tern of organization. *Planning for American Youth* was prepared for the Planning and Executive Committees and the Implementation Commission of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals by Professor J. Paul Leonard, of Stanford University.

Planning for American Youth presents in brief and attractive format a platform for postwar development of our secondary schools. While earnestly professional administrators and teachers in secondary schools should be conversant with the larger document, *Education for All American Youth*, even these persons will find the smaller compendium helpful in understanding the major emphases of the book. It will be highly useful also in teachers' meetings and for laymen interested in getting at desirable trends of development. The price set on the publication is twenty-five cents, and discounts are offered for purchases in quantity.

Help on student councils Another recent publication of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals of real promise in utility has been issued as the October, 1944, number of that association's *Bulletin*. It is called *The Student Council in the Secondary School*. The study was made and the manuscript prepared by the Committee on Student Activities of the association, of which Professor Edgar G. Johnston, of the University of Michigan, is chairman. The helpful nature of the content is suggested by

the chapter titles, some of which are "Growth of Student Participation in School Organization," "Aims and Purposes of Student Participation," "Types of Student Councils or Associations," "Organizing the Student Council," "Student Council Projects," "How the Student Council Solves Problems," and "Student Leadership." Included also are a selected bibliography and a list of co-operating schools representing all but a few of our states.

This publication deserves to be regarded as a handbook on the student council. The significance of its content and of the type of student activity which is its subject is suggested by the following paragraph from its Foreword:

The war has served to stimulate concern for democratic values and procedures. Those values and procedures are tested as much in peace as in war. The problems we face in the postwar era are likely to tax to the utmost the devotion, the co-operation, and the sense of responsibility of every citizen. The role of the public school in relation to the achievement of these ends is a central and expanding one. Among its most effective agencies of functional civic education is an active, socially responsible student council.

Copies of this publication may be purchased for one dollar from the office of the association.

Improving study habits From the Educational Records Bureau comes a planographed bulletin of thirty-eight pages, the general content of which is indicated by the title, *The Improvement of Study*

Habits and Skills. The content is the work of Arthur E. Traxler, who is on the staff of the bureau. The headings of content are "Orientation to the Problem," "Nature of Study," "Group versus Individual Approach," "Factors Conditioning Study," "Ways of Gathering Information concerning Study Habits and Skills," "General Procedures for Improving Study," "Outline for a Case Study of a Pupil with Study Difficulties," "Work Books and Guides for Use in Teaching Study Habits and Skills," and "Summary." The main body of the bulletin is followed by a bibliography of more than a hundred items and an appendix consisting of a schedule for use in surveying study habits in Grades VIII-XIV.

Copies of this bulletin may be secured from the Educational Records Bureau, 437 West Fifty-ninth Street, New York 19, New York.

Handbook for school forums The Junior Town Meeting League, a noncommercial organization that has encouraged discus-

sion of public issues among some hundreds of thousands of youth during the past three years, is distributing a document entitled *Make Youth Discussion Conscious!* which carries the subtitle "A Handbook for School Forums and Class Discussions with Suggestions for Adapting Radio Forum Techniques to Discussions by Youth." The pamphlet is intended for use in connection with activities of the league, but it is replete with sug-

gestions for discussion in forum or classroom irrespective of any connection with the league's program. The content begins with an analysis of procedures followed in four major radio discussions and affords guidance through sections headed "Preliminary Steps in Class or Group Discussions," "Good Leadership for Discussion," "Training Speakers," "How To Ask Questions," "Evaluating Performance," and "School Assembly Discussions." The pamphlet also explains the plan of organization and operation, and the program of the Junior Town Meeting League. On account of the cardinal significance of discussion in the democratic process in which—to belabor a point—it is our obligation to be schooling the youth of America, many teachers and administrators who have not already seen the pamphlet will want to avail themselves of the opportunity to secure a copy. Copies may be obtained without charge while the supply lasts from the office of the league at 400 South Front Street, Columbus 15, Ohio.

Bulletin on aviation education The California State Department of Education has recently issued a bulletin which is a report of a conference on aviation education called by the state superintendent of public instruction. This bulletin, entitled *Aviation Education in California Public Schools*, is in the nature of a capitalization of experience in California schools with aviation-edu-

cation programs. The extent of that experience is suggested in the assertion in the Foreword that, during the 1943-44 school term, 194 high schools had enrolled 4,661 students in aeronautics and, in addition, 32 schools had 2,288 students in classes in aircraft maintenance. The conference was held in May, 1944, under the general chairmanship of Frank B. Lindsay, assistant superintendent of public instruction, and with Edgar Fuller, principal educationalist of the Aviation Education Service, Civil Aeronautics Administration, as consultant. The conference was organized into three committees representing three school levels, elementary-school, high-school, and junior-college. Except for the Appendix, the report is presented in three parts devoted respectively to these three levels. The Appendix consists of a list (as to location, class, etc.) of airports in the state, a "Bibliography for High School Courses in Science of Aeronautics," and a list of "Motion Pictures and Film Strips" relating to aviation.

PROCEEDINGS OF IMPORTANT CONFERENCES

PUBLISHED proceedings of three conferences held at the University of Chicago during the summer are now available.

Reading in Relation to Experience and Language, edited by Professor William S. Gray, presents the papers given at the seventh annual reading conference held during the summer of

1944 at the University of Chicago. It discusses reading as a form of experience and considers relationships among reading, experience, and language.

The Proceedings of the Thirteenth Annual Conference for Administrative Officers of Public and Private Schools, published under the title *Significant Aspects of American Life and Postwar Education*, is edited by Professor William C. Reavis. The book deals with the improvement of American life, democratic living, equality of educational opportunities, the relation of government to the economic order, and educational problems of a changing population.

Higher Education in the Postwar Period, Volume XVI of the Proceedings of the Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Institutions, is compiled and edited by Professor John Dale Russell. It presents a comprehensive review of the problems to be faced in American colleges and universities after the war and the planning being done to meet those problems.

Orders for any of these publications may be sent to the Department of Education, University of Chicago, Chicago 37, Illinois. The last two books mentioned sell for \$2.00 a copy, and the proceedings of the reading conference for \$2.50. A special price of \$5.50 is offered for the three books when ordered at one time to be sent to one address.

LEONARD V. KOOS

WHO'S WHO FOR JANUARY

Authors of news notes and articles The news notes in this issue have been prepared by LEONARD V. KOOS, professor of secondary education at the University of Chicago. REINHARD BENDIX, instructor of the social sciences in the College at the University of Chicago, discusses the functions of the teaching of history, and in the light of these functions he criticizes various approaches to the teaching of history and presents an approach that he considers more valid. MARGARET E. ANDREWS, employment co-ordinator in the Minneapolis public schools, surveys the results of the intensive "Back to School" campaign which was conducted in Minneapolis in the autumn. REBECCA EVANS CARROLL, practice teacher in the Baltimore public schools, from a study of the moral ideology and personal aspirations of lower- and middle-class Negro adolescents, concludes that the moral and social values of adolescents are greatly influenced by environmental conditions. JAMES PAUL STOAKES, associate professor of English at Marshall College, Huntington, West Virginia, points out that, since the importance of English as an international language is increasing

rapidly, instructors in the subject should look on the teaching of English in foreign countries as an important branch of their profession. JANE ELIZABETH CRAWFORD, teacher of biology in the Woodrow Wilson High School, Washington, D.C., presents a survey of the 1942 graduates of that school and shows how such a survey can be of value in planning the curriculum, the extra-curriculum program, and the guidance program of a school. The selected references on secondary-school instruction have been compiled by LEONARD V. KOOS, professor of secondary education at the University of Chicago, and AMY F. OWENS, a former student in the Department of Education at the same institution.

Reviewers of books EARL J. MCGRATH, dean of administration at the University of Buffalo.

ROBERT C. WOELLNER, associate professor of education and executive secretary of the Board of Vocational Guidance and Placement at the University of Chicago. NELSON B. HENRY, professor of education at the University of Chicago. H. O. PEARCE, principal of the Valley City High School, Valley City, North Dakota.

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EDUCATION AND THE TEACHING OF HISTORY¹

REINHARD BENDIX

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A GENERATION ago Thorstein Veblen characterized American education in terms of a conflict between two opposite orientations: the one tending toward practical efficiency in the business sense, the other being a disinterested search for factual knowledge. In his view the institutions of higher learning *should* devote themselves exclusively to the latter. But, in point of fact, he thought that higher institutions were threatened by an application of the businessman's point of view to their educational policies. Thus the modern pursuit of knowledge was jeopardized, since the businessman was interested in immediate practical application, not in idle curiosity or in esoteric knowledge.

This view of a generation ago is again the subject of discussion. But the latest criticism of higher education comes from the side—variously dubbed “traditionalist,” “humanist,” or “Neo-Scholastic”—which almost reverses Veblen's argument. It says that education should guard not only against the intrusion of professional

training (that is, business in the wider sense) but also against the predominance of scientific training. The latter reputedly imposes a narrow, rationalist outlook on life. As a result of scientific training, the student is said to lose himself in the systematic uncertainties of scientific inquiry and in a relativism which destroys the values necessary for the guidance of human living. Today, therefore, we hear denunciations not only of “vocationalism” but also of “scientism.”

It should be realized that today all the sciences are attacked for whatever they do, not only for being impractical as in Veblen's day. If they are practical, they are indicted for materialism. If they are impractical, they are still indicted—but this time for destroying the values necessary for human life by inculcating disbelief in eternal truths. They are indicted for the sin of indoctrination, since they reputedly teach students that only through the scientific method can knowledge in the broadest sense be acquired. They are finally indicted for turning scientific education into vocational preparation and for helping the students to “adjust” to modern life by teaching them the fundamentals of modern science.

¹ This paper was presented on July 7, 1944, at the Fourth Annual Conference for Teachers of the Social Sciences in Secondary Schools and Junior Colleges held at the University of Chicago.

How can all these sins be avoided? How can we fight materialism, resuscitate the values governing our lives, and avoid indoctrination, vocationalism, and the specious idea of "adjustment to life"? The answer is readily given. A concern with the eternal problems of man, as presented by the classical writers, obviates materialism; compels the student to contemplate the eternal values of truth, goodness, and beauty; presents him with the *various* views contained in these "great books." It thereby insures a general education which is removed from the everyday problems of the student's life, both in terms of eventual vocation and in terms of the general adjustment problems which he will have to face.

I have taken the space to comment on the current educational controversy because it has a direct bearing on the relation of the teaching of history to social action. It concerns the teacher at the high-school or junior-college level because changes in education at one level inevitably entail changes at another. Let me try to show how the teaching of history may be affected by these controversies.

THE APPROACH OF THE SCIENTIFIC HISTORIANS

There is first the approach of the "scientific historians." In recent decades historians, along with those who study the other social sciences, have been prompted to develop a so-called "objective" approach. Historians have

done so in view of the fact that history is even less "useful" than any of the other social sciences. While an economist, if need be, might find employment as an economist, the historian has no special skill but only a general education to recommend him for a job. The historian has consequently felt compelled to make a virtue out of the necessity which prompted him to study history for the sake of history. As a result, the scientific historian often takes the question-begging position that history should be taught because a knowledge of history is important. He teaches history in the belief that he is the simple reflector of past events, maintaining with Fustel de Coulanges: "It is not I who speak, but history which speaks through me."

THE APPROACH OF THE NEO-SCHOLASTICS

The approach of the scientific historians is challenged by the Neo-Scholastics. The latter are trying by different means to embrace the modern belief in esoteric knowledge or, in the words of Veblen, to chase in an unbiased fashion after inconsequential facts. While the scientific historians have tried to avoid bias by "sticking to the facts," the Neo-Scholastics attempt to be unbiased by disregarding the facts. They are concerned either with eternal verities or with the views of history which can be found in the "great books."

According to Mortimer J. Adler, eternal verities should be "applied"

to the study of history. He has told us in his recent book *How To Think about War and Peace*:

Men form political communities in order to have peace, in order to live without fighting and violence and to enjoy the positive benefits which peace confers. Peace, which is identical with the order of civil life, represents the normal condition toward which the nature of man aspires. War, identical with the absence of civil order, violates and frustrates human nature. *That is why war is abnormal.*²

We learn further that "the cause of peace is government,"³ and hence "the only cause of war is anarchy,"⁴ that is, the absence of government. Anarchy exists whenever individuals or nations refuse to submit to government; hence the anarchy of wars is due, according to Adler, to the sovereignty of nations (which is understood, of course, as the unwillingness of nations to submit to a common government). Once modern nations renounce this "external sovereignty," international government becomes possible; and international government by definition means that peace is established and that the anarchy of war is eliminated. In justice to Adler, I should add that he avows his recognition that his statements are tautologies; he defends them, however, on the ground that "the word 'tautology' is merely an invidious way of referring to a self-evident truth."⁵

² Mortimer J. Adler, *How To Think about War and Peace*, p. 40. New York: Simon & Schuster, 1944.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 55.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 69.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 110.

THE LITERARY OR HISTORIOGRAPHIC APPROACH

The teacher of history may wonder how such erudite question-begging may be made the subject of everyday instruction. Instead of anticipating what Adler will advance as the "new approach to the teaching of history," it may be useful to turn for a moment to a somewhat different school of thought. According to this approach, the past history of history-writing demonstrates the multiplicity of historical interpretations. Hence instruction in any one interpretation necessarily involves indoctrination of the student, which can be avoided only by teaching the most important interpretations of history which have already been developed. These can be found in the great classics of historical writing. Therefore it is only proper that the student should read these books. This reading should be supplemented from time to time by treating such history as has not been written up in "great books" in the light of the different methods which the great historians have developed. Thus American history should not simply be taught à la Beard or Becker but also, or perhaps primarily, à la Aristotle, Gibbon, Buckle, or Thucydides.

In this approach the study of history is treated as if it were synonymous with a literary criticism of the great classics of history-writing. These books are viewed with respect to four criteria: appreciation of the work in itself, concern with the work

in its relation to a subject matter, concern with the work in relation to its author, and concern with the work in relation to its audience.⁶ I would not like to be understood as asserting that such an approach to the study of great historical classics does not have an appropriate place. I question, however, where in the curriculum that place might be and what distribution of emphasis should be given to these four branches of the humanities. The literary appreciation of great works in history does not belong to the teaching of history proper. The devices of expression and the relation of a historical work to its audience are subject matter which belongs to an advanced stage of training on the part of the student. There remains, then, the consideration of the men and the events which affect a work of historiography and which are affected by it. At this point the latitude with which this approach is interpreted becomes crucial. The context of a historical work may be viewed as emanating almost entirely from the work itself. In that case we have to do not with the teaching of history but with the literary study of works on history.⁷

⁶ Corresponding to this fourfold distinction are the four methods of the humanities, which are called, in turn, the disciplines of appreciation, the historical disciplines, the disciplines of expression, and the disciplines of communication or rhetoric.

⁷ A recent exposition of the underlying principles of this approach may be found in Richard P. McKeon, "Discussion and Resolution in Political Conflicts," *Ethics*, LIV (July, 1944), 235-62.

In this approach exclusive attention is given to the various interpretations of history. The student is asked to evaluate them for himself with the help of abstract criteria derived from a critical examination of these historical classics. In this he is aided by whatever knowledge of historical fact a crowded curriculum will allow. If historical classics are read with a view to the application of literary criticism (or, rather, a philosophy of literary criticism), that purpose should be avowed, and a place should be given to such study in graduate courses. But I submit that the student at the high-school or at the college level is not capable of benefiting from such study; the time that should be taken for acquainting him with historical material is not properly used for the purpose. I should add that this interest in the teaching of historiography (in terms of literary criticism) rather than of history stems from the same general motivation as Adler's interest in eternal verities; it tries to get away from confronting historical problems in the terms in which our own time must attempt to confront them. While Adler "eliminates" one-sided interpretations by confining himself to "self-evident truths," the literary or historiographic approach makes the same attempt by considering only the interpretations of others.

These scientific and Neo-Scholastic tendencies among the teachers of history are significant beyond the immediate domain of educational poli-

cies. In their attempt to confine themselves either exclusively to facts or exclusively to the interpretations of others, they frequently cannot escape advocating the *status quo*. Moreover, these tendencies indicate that the scientific historians and their Neo-Scholastic colleagues have apparently not reflected on the obvious fact that any teaching of history must be evaluative and that "freedom from bias" or "freedom from facts" is as good or as bad a bias as any other. In my opinion such a bias is worse than others because it fails to reconsider the rôle which the teaching of history must play in our own time. Whatever proposals for history-teaching are made, the problem of how history should be taught is a political problem.⁸

HOW EDUCATIONAL AIMS INFLUENCE INTERPRETATIONS OF HISTORY

A conscious promotion of teaching secular history in the schools seems to have come to the fore only in the sixteenth century. Then, with the struggle between ancients and mod-

erns during the seventeenth century and with the rising national consciousness of the eighteenth century, the emphasis slowly shifted from ancient to national and modern history. Already in the sixteenth century we find nationalist teaching of history in Germany, when Jacob Wimpheling wrote a textbook designed to make young Germans proud of their country's past. We find it as well in our own textbooks, such as the one published in 1898 which purports to explain the question: "Why are Americans the bravest men and the most successful of inventors, explorers, authors, and scientists? In short, why is the United States the greatest nation in history?"⁹ Thus the patriotic emphasis in the teaching of history has been with us for many centuries. I would add, however, that no society has been found so far in which the instructors of the young generation did not in one way or another see to it that a pride in their native group and its past was inculcated. What makes this unavoidable emphasis a political problem is only that it depends on the specific educational system and on the teachers to decide what achievements of the past are worthy of admiration. Let those who desire "freedom from bias" not be deceived: they do not avoid inculcation in the patriotic vein; they only leave to others the decision as to what the emphasis shall be.

⁸ Thus it is not sufficient to deplore the tentativeness and the frequently one-sided character of historical interpretations. The decision to stick exclusively to interpretations of the past, to forgo the formulation of a historical perspective pertinent to our own time, is a contradiction in terms: this decision itself must result in an interpretation. Consequently, the genuine differences of interpretation cannot be overcome by turning away from the shifting ground of the present to the "enduring" certainties of the past. This turn to the past is itself a part of that struggle over ideas and ideals which is the basis for these differences, and it should be recognized as such.

⁹ Quoted in Henry Johnson, *An Introduction to the History of the Social Sciences in Schools*, p. 18. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1932.

The advocates of "freedom from bias" and "freedom from facts" should consider further that the educational function of history-teaching was given special attention by two outstanding educators of a few centuries ago. The one was Juan Luis Vives; the other, Joseph Priestley. Vives, a Spanish humanist who wrote in the first part of the sixteenth century, had this to say about the aim of teaching history:

Where there is history, children have transferred to them the advantages of old men; where history is absent, old men are as children.

[Without history] no one would know anything about his father or ancestors; no one could know his own rights or those of another or how to maintain them; no one would know how his ancestors came to the country he inhabits; no one's possessions would be certain and valid.¹⁰

During the eighteenth century the famous English chemist, Joseph Priestley, further advanced the teaching of history by devising a very exhaustive curriculum, the general intent of which was "to contribute to its forming the able statesman and the intelligent and useful citizen."¹¹ After giving an outline of his course comprising a complete social history of mankind, he admonished the tutor to use a textbook in which all this material had been compiled (not a historical work!) and to have students raise questions and criticisms, to the end that "instead of barren heads, barbarian pedants, wrangling sons of pride, and truth-perplexing metaphys-

ic wits, men, patriots, chiefs, and citizens are formed."¹²

These authorities have been cited only to show that in previous periods men have attempted to formulate not only a curriculum for the teaching of history but answers to the question: With what educational aims in mind should history be taught? Interpretations of history have always depended on the way in which the historians have viewed the emerging problems of their own society. In many ways the historian selects his problem and interprets events and ideas of the past in the light of the issues that confront him. It is my opinion that history cannot be taught in a manner that is essentially different from the way in which it is written. The teacher views the past in the light of the questions which both he and the contemporary historian must raise because both must confront, in their role as citizens, the same compelling problems of their society. Such problems will obviously change, and hence the interpretation which is developed in response to them changes.

This recognition of "relativity" in all historical knowledge does not mean, however, that we must discard that interpretation of the past which guides our teaching, as soon as it is made. The very fact that the "specious present," from which we view history, passes forever from the past into the future and the fact that the transformation of our institutional

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 21.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, p. 63.

¹² *Ibid.*, p. 72.

pattern and of our value-systems is slow (despite the rapidity of superficial changes) make for a permanence of problems and issues which increases the area of validity to which contemporary historical interpretation may make a claim.

FUNCTIONS OF THE TEACHING OF HISTORY

Our teaching of history must seek to promote values that will help to guide the citizens of tomorrow. It must also face the perspective of our time, which holds that our study of history cannot yield eternal verities and that the tentative truth of its insights is inevitably tested in the light of their relevance for action in society (in the broadest sense). The enduring values which underlie our teaching of history cannot be in doubt. They are the values of the democratic faith, and they can be incorporated into our teaching of history just as far as they have become realized in the community in which we teach. Space does not permit a discussion of this faith, except on one point. Democracy depends, in the words of John Stuart Mill, on the "qualities of the human beings composing the society over which the government is exercised."¹³ The specific quality of our citizens which the teaching of history can hope to enhance has to do with their role as electors of the government, as formers of "public opinion," as participants

in community life, and so on. Each individual must, therefore, in some way be made to feel that his function as a citizen is imbued with historical significance, that his action is not just a chore but a contribution to the quality of his family, his community, and his nation. In a democracy history must, therefore, be taught with attention to the historical significance in all periods of the "man on the street."

A second equally important function of history-teaching is to equip the future citizen with a knowledge of historical facts adequate for his role in society. It is this aspect which the Neo-Scholastic approach does not consider. Undoubtedly the teaching of historical method is important; undoubtedly the student should be acquainted with some of the major issues in the philosophy of history. Such instruction as may be given in these matters will be useless, however, unless the student is equipped with a knowledge of historical fact adequate at least to make him aware of what the controversies over interpretations are all about.

A MORE EFFECTIVE APPROACH TO THE TEACHING OF HISTORY

When I speak here in favor of teaching historical facts, I am thinking of a particular approach. Our interpretation today should focus on the all-important event of the two World Wars, and I may say that, if this interpretation is properly done, it will not become obsolete on the

¹³ John Stuart Mill, *Utilitarianism*, p. 192. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., 1931.

day on which the armistice is declared. Such a procedure is not new. Teachers of the eighteenth century recommended that we should begin with the present state of our immediate community and work back into the past. This method may, of course, sound rather pedestrian at first, but the world-wide sweep of contemporary events is certain to keep us from approaching the teaching of history in a narrow manner.

I suspect that one of the major defects of the social-studies approach to the teaching of history has been the fact that it has contented itself with teaching the social, political, and economic aspects of American or of European history instead of the old recounting of kings, battles, and diplomatic history. Certainly this shift in emphasis was an improvement, but it was not enough. We must recognize today that much could be gained if we could center our instruction in history around a few major themes in consonance with our developing interests. Surely, among these topics the processes of democratization and of industrialization are outstanding.

Suppose you are confronted with the problem of teaching European history. You could treat English history, to which usually the greatest attention is given, as a model development in which the disintegration of feudal society partly coincided with, and was partly followed by, the emergence of representative institutions at an early time. Industrialization followed by a lapse of a century

the democratic development which was symbolized by the Bill of Rights of 1689. Contrast this with the case of Japan, where a fully developed industrial system was grafted upon a feudal society with the effect that the old ruling groups were strengthened in their position of dominance. Thus feudalism was combined with industrialization almost without incurring the tendencies toward representative institutions which you can find in most western European countries.

The study of history can be made more meaningful to our students if they can be made to see that this study helps them to understand the meaning of early twentieth-century history. That may be achieved if we develop some such model as I have suggested, which would call for a historical understanding of the comparative chronology in the various nations with regard to their development toward democracy and industrialization. Thus the various countries of western Europe might be studied with respect to their several approximations to the development in England on the one side and in Japan on the other.¹⁴

As a case in point, take the contrasting development of England and Germany and observe how a comparative chronology of democratization and industrialization in these two countries provides a useful frame-

¹⁴ I have selected England because it has the prime place in our teaching of European history and Japan because it affords the most extreme contrast available.

work of factual historical knowledge. Political unification in England was reached with the rise of absolute monarchy toward the end of the fifteenth century. Political unification in Germany was reached in 1870. The Reformation in England was introduced from above by Henry VIII, with the Act of Supremacy of 1534. Reformation in Germany was introduced by Luther, partly depending on a mass movement but still largely based on the support from various princes, which aggravated political particularism and petty authoritarianism. The commercial revolution was pushed ahead in England by easy access to the sea, by national unity, and by a community of interests between the monarchy and the rising commercial classes. It was retarded in Germany by social, political, and religious particularism (all mutually reinforcing); by the retarded development of the commercial middle class; and, perhaps most important, by the successful effort of the old feudal aristocracies to maintain their social and political predominance through the perpetuation of standing armies out of all proportion to the resources of their petty tyrannies. Finally, representative institutions were fostered in England because Henry VIII's "reformation from above" had inadvertently sanctioned religious and, by implication, political nonconformity and because the dependence of the absolute monarchy on the economic well-being of the merchant class enabled the

latter to make independent political demands on the central authority of the king as soon as cleavages appeared between the social, political, and religious preoccupations of the king and the merchant class. In contrast, the German middle class suffered such a setback in its social and economic development through the Thirty Years' War that for centuries to come it could not develop a position of economic prominence which would have given its political demands the necessary weight. While the German aristocracy could, therefore, intrench itself through the monopolization of military and administrative positions, the middle class had to confine itself to politically ineffectual protests, and it came to divert its energies into that famous flowering of German classical culture, which could not make up for the loss in democratization through all its imposing erudition and artistic achievements.

Thus, when industrialization came in England, it had been preceded by two centuries of struggle for parliamentary supremacy and representative government. When industrialization came in Germany, it only helped to reinforce the social and political predominance of the aristocracy, the officialdom, and the military caste because these ruling groups introduced many economic advances through the help of governmental machinery which enabled them to perpetuate the political inferiority of the middle class, although they could not prevent its economic ascendance.

These few remarks on a comparative chronology in the processes of democratization and industrialization, which would allocate any given country along the continuum between the English and the Japanese development, must suffice. This approach seems to me to be more appropriate than those of the scientific historian, Adler, or the "literary critics." It must obviously include the teaching of factual historical knowledge, the application of a specific frame of reference which may involve some discussion of the methodological problem of historical analysis (depending on the level of the student), and, finally, an over-all interpretation that enhances the student's understanding of the historical background of some major problem of our

time.¹⁵ Such instruction and interpretation makes no claim to finality or exhaustiveness, but it may serve as a guide toward an increased effectiveness of our teaching of history, so that the citizens of tomorrow may better understand what they are doing, in the light of what has been done and of what they hope to accomplish.

¹⁵ It should be noted that this comparative chronology is evaluative in the sense that it focuses attention on the two processes of democratization and industrialization. On the other hand, it does not prejudice any discussion of methodological problems, of the philosophy of history, etc. A knowledge of comparative dates provides only the basis for an understanding of the reasons for the different development of democracy and industrial production, for example, in England and Germany. But surely it is impossible to discuss these reasons without such knowledge.

"BACK TO SCHOOL" THEY CAME

MARGARET E. ANDREWS

Minneapolis Public Schools, Minneapolis, Minnesota

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A CO-ORDINATED CAMPAIGN

THE "Back to School" campaign, which had nation-wide attention in the autumn, was actually begun in Minneapolis even before school was dismissed last June. As calls came in for summer workers, employers were told that the students were applying for summer work only and that they must expect the students to return to school in the autumn. Referrals of students made by the United States Employment Service were marked "summer work." The employment coordinator also spent a great deal of time in the office of the United States Employment Service interviewing students and marking their referral cards "summer work." During the summer, as calls were received and as students came in for referrals, it was possible to stress again the importance of returning to school.

As fall approached, however, a more intensive campaign was begun. Two weeks before school opened, six coordinators or student-work supervisors were employed full time to make employer contacts and to urge employers to encourage student workers to return to school. The co-ordinators were able, in some cases, to suggest that these students come back to school on a modified program or

as members of the part-time work course.

It was realized that, in a city the size of Minneapolis, six persons working full time for two weeks could not begin to cover those organizations using student help. To this end many community resources were brought into the picture. Certainly no cause has received more wholehearted support than our campaign for students to return to school. The daily papers co-operated in furnishing photographers, obtaining interviews, assigning reporters, taking news stories that we suggested, writing editorials, using column space, etc. The radio stations, with almost no exception, gave time for programs which we prepared.

The Minneapolis Parent-Teacher Association set up a city-wide committee, representing management, labor, education, and religion, to help promote this program. A meeting was held to explain the importance of the program and to urge the co-operation of the groups represented by the committee. Each member of the committee then went back to his own group and put on an active campaign. Through their presidents, two large employer groups sent letters to all members urging them to interview their student workers and to en-

courage them to return to school. The labor unions, at their local and city-wide meetings, discussed the "Back to School" movement. Members were asked to talk to the boys with whom they were working in the plants and to point out the desirability of returning to school. The clergy, through sermons and individual contacts, carried on their campaign. Through the Toastmasters' Club it was possible to arrange for speakers to discuss this subject at a number of luncheon-club meetings during the week before school opened. The field assistant of the Child Labor Division of the Department of Labor in this area did an extremely fine job in helping to co-ordinate the program. The United States Employment Service has co-operated, too, in referring to the schools all undergraduates applying for jobs.

RESULTS OF THE CAMPAIGN

After this concerted activity on the part of the co-operating community agencies, it seemed important that an effort be made to find out how many students actually did return to school. It was further felt that, if students who had not returned were to be encouraged to do so, some immediate action must be taken.

The amount of work involved in a follow-up program of this size is so great that it was necessary to call on the visiting teachers, the counselors, and the Parent-Teacher Association for help. The visiting teachers and counselors prepared a list of all the

students on the rolls in June who did not return in September. The educational chairman of the Parent-Teacher Association quickly recruited volunteer parents from every high-school district to follow up on this list. These parents reported to the high school and did all the initial telephoning necessary to discover why students had not returned. In cases where no telephone was listed, cards were sent. The results of the telephone calls were turned over to the visiting teachers and the counselors. Together they went over the list of those pupils who were employed and decided which pupils, on the basis of their past school record, should be encouraged to return. Home calls and further telephone calls were made when necessary.

Table 1 shows the distribution of dropouts and their reasons for not returning in September of the years 1943 and 1944. The anticipated enrolment for September, 1944, was 13,130 students. However, on September 14, two weeks after school began, 13,740 students were enrolled. In other words, the number of students who dropped out was much smaller than had been anticipated. This fact is particularly significant since a declining birth rate in the late 1920's and early 1930's, which was taken into consideration in arriving at the anticipated enrolment, is now operating to reduce the high-school enrolment. Further, the labor supply in Minneapolis is less adequate than it was last year, and there are many

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more jobs available and many more inducements for students to remain out of school. These facts notwithstanding, only 1,051 students, or 8 per cent of the anticipated enrolment, did not return. This figure, however, represents a distorted picture. Actually 8 per cent of the estimated enrolment did not "drop out" in the usual sense of the word.

Certainly those who transferred to other schools, who graduated from summer school, who entered the armed forces, who left the city, who entered colleges, could not be considered dropouts. If the students in these groups are eliminated from the original list of dropouts, there remain only 274 who were working or who were out for health or miscellaneous reasons. In other words, approximately 2 per cent, not 8 per cent, of the estimated enrolment legitimately could be considered as dropouts.

Only 26 per cent of those who left school in 1944 could legitimately be called dropouts. In 1943, 32 per cent were considered as dropouts. It will be noted also that considerably fewer students were graduated from summer school this year than were graduated in 1943. Such large numbers prepared themselves for June graduation that the number in attendance this summer was reduced. The tightening of the Minneapolis labor market may be the explanation of the fewer students who left town this year.

As indicated previously, only 274 students really "dropped out." About 3 per cent of these dropouts gave poor

health as their reason for not returning. There were 47 students, or 17 per cent, who were out for miscellaneous reasons, and 62 students, or 23 per cent, who were not located. This leaves 156 students, or 57 per cent, who preferred work to school.

TABLE 1

COMPARISON OF NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS WHO DROPPED OUT OF MINNEAPOLIS HIGH SCHOOLS DURING THE SUMMERS OF 1943 AND 1944

REASON FOR DROPPING OUT	1943		1944	
	Number of Pupils	Percentage of Pupils	Number of Pupils	Percentage of Pupils
Graduated from summer school.....	217	14.7	114	10.9
Left city.....	289	19.5	193	18.4
Transferred to other schools.....	315	21.3	333	31.7
Entered armed services.....	171	11.6	130	12.3
Accelerated to college.	20	1.4	7	.6
Employed.....	310	20.9	156	14.9
Poor health.....	13	.9	9	.8
Miscellaneous and not located.....	144	9.7	109	10.4
Total.....	1,479	100.0	1,051	100.0

It was with this group of 156 students that the school was particularly concerned. Through home calls by the visiting teacher and through conferences between the visiting teacher and the counselor, it was found that very few students in this group who should have been in school had not made some plans for further training. Of the 156 students who were working, the school felt that 84, or 54 per cent, should not be advised to return.

Of the 72 students whom the school felt should return, 33 students had definite plans for night school and 19 students returned to day school. There were, however, 20 students whom the school felt should return who refused to consider returning. This is the only group with which the school might feel that it had failed—students who had the ability but who could not be persuaded to continue their education. This group, however, in relation to the total number who did not return or in relation to the total enrolment, is very small indeed.

Apparently both boys and girls found equal work opportunities or felt equal patriotic drives to work. The 156 working students included exactly 78 boys and 78 girls.

A tremendous amount of effort on the part of parents' committees, visiting teachers, and counselors went into the making of this report. Washburn High School reported that more than two hundred telephone calls were made by parents. Central High School indicated that the survey took more than twenty-five hours of the time of the visiting teachers and counselors. North High School reported that thirty-seven home calls were made where there was no telephone or where the conditions warranted visits. As a result of this time and effort, nineteen students were known to have returned to day school. Perhaps this number does not seem an adequate reward for the hundreds of hours of work that went into the survey. However, there is a great deal of satisfac-

tion in knowing that, with the exception of twenty students, Minneapolis has been able to work out an educational plan for all the students who were able to profit by such further training. Further, it is a real tribute to the parent, counselor, and visiting-teacher groups that they were able to trace down almost every dropout. Three schools gave an accounting for every dropout, and, with the exception of South High School, no school reported failure to locate more than five students.

A trend which was noticeable last year reappeared again this year: a number of students are transferring from public to parochial schools. Last year about one-third of those who transferred went to parochial schools. This year, although the total number of school transfers was about the same as last, almost one-half transferred to parochial schools. This situation is probably, in part, a reflection of the better financial condition of the families which allows them to pay tuition. It is also, in many cases, the desire of parents to enrol their boys in military schools where the training might enable the boy to be considered sooner for a commission when he is inducted into the armed services.

CONCLUSIONS

With the facts brought out in this survey, it can be stated that:

1. Calling on the various community agencies to work with the schools in carrying on this campaign resulted

in much better contacts and much better results than could have been possible through the efforts of the school alone. In not a single instance was co-operation on the "Back to School" program refused. There were innumerable examples of cases in which the co-operating individuals and agencies, in carrying out their individual campaigns, went far beyond the suggestions made by the school. The campaign proved not only a willingness but an eagerness on the part of individuals and organizations to have a part in an activity which in the long run will affect them all.

2. Most Minneapolis students have used good judgment in deciding to return to school to complete their education rather than staying on the job to earn good wages. Only 20 of the 274 dropouts were students whom the school felt should return but who refused to do so.

3. Minneapolis students are aware of the importance of getting the maximum amount of education in the shortest possible time. This fact is borne out by the numbers who attended summer school and the numbers who are now in night school. Further, it is significant that seven superior students, all boys, were allowed to register at the University of Minnesota or other colleges before finishing their high-school work.

4. Minneapolis high-school students who left school before graduation were, in a large part, those students who were failing or who were

dissatisfied with school even before the present war situation developed. They are the students who, in most cases, the school felt were better off in a work situation.

5. A greater proportion of Minneapolis high-school students transferred to parochial schools this year than last.

6. Minneapolis high-school students moved out of Minneapolis in smaller numbers this year than last.

7. Minneapolis boys and girls have left school in equal numbers.

8. Minneapolis high-school students are able to maintain good health since only nine students in the entire high-school system, as compared to thirteen last year, were reported out of school for health reasons.

9. Significant numbers of Minneapolis high-school boys are leaving school, before graduation, to join the armed forces. Actually fewer left this year than last. These students will have to look to military training to prepare them for postwar jobs.

10. Minneapolis high schools are able to follow up the students who drop out, and every effort has been made to keep them in school until they graduate.

11. Finally, the intensive "Back to School" campaign which was carried on in Minneapolis was of value. In the face of a tightening labor market and a normally declining high-school enrolment, fewer students dropped out this year than last year, when no such intensive campaign was conducted.

RELATION OF SOCIAL ENVIRONMENT TO THE MORAL IDEOLOGY AND THE PERSONAL ASPIRATIONS OF NEGRO BOYS AND GIRLS

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*

THE purposes of this study were to determine the relation of the socioeconomic status of boys and girls in a Negro community (1) to their conception of what is right or wrong and (2) to their ideas of the person they would most like to resemble. The study was carried out in a community in the eastern section of Baltimore, a border southern city. This community in "East Baltimore," as it is called, is an urban community composed almost exclusively of Negroes, whose children are educated by a public, segregated school system.

DESCRIPTION OF THE GROUP

Three hundred Negro adolescents were studied in this experiment. Using as a guide the class list and identification numbers, the teacher supplied the investigator with information as to the chronological age, the sex, the social status, and the intelligence quotient (as measured by the Kuhlmann-Anderson Intelligence Tests) of each child. After the pupils were separated into lower and middle classes according to social status, a frequency distribution was made of age and intelligence quotient. The median intelligence quotient for the middle-class

group was 105, while that for the lower-class group was 95. The median age for each group was thirteen. Fortunately there was sufficient similarity between the age pattern and the sex distribution of the groups to make comparisons with accuracy. The middle-class group included eighty-one boys and ninety-one girls; the lower-class group, sixty boys and sixty-eight girls.

CLASSIFICATION BY SOCIAL STATUS

Information given by W. Lloyd Warner¹ was used to classify the boys and girls. The social status of an individual is determined by his social participation; that is, social status is determined by an analysis of an individual's intimate friends. In this case the teacher's judgment—a recognized limitation—was used to approximate the social class of each child. Children whose parents were in professions were placed in the upper-middle class. In the lower-middle class were placed those children whose

¹ W. Lloyd Warner, "Educational Effects of Social Status," *Environment and Education*, pp. 17-18. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 54. Human Development Series, Vol. I. Chicago: University of Chicago, 1942.

parents had good positions, whose homes were comfortable, and who came to school well dressed. Thirty per cent of the middle class were children of the upper-middle social level, while 70 per cent were members of the lower-middle class. Pupils in the lower-lower class were children whose parents were drunkards, who came to school poorly dressed and dirty, and who lived in crowded, unsanitary homes. Pupils in the upper-lower class were those boys and girls whose parents were laborers or unskilled workers and whose homes were overcrowded. Forty per cent of the lower group were members of the upper-lower class, while 60 per cent were members of the lower-lower class. In order to make the grouping a trenchant one, pupils were finally left in the larger categories of lower and middle class.

A total of 298 adolescents wrote intelligible responses. One hundred and forty-six were students in the junior high school; ninety-seven were students in the occupational school; and fifty-five were members of an ungraded school. In the analysis of all data, only sex and social status were used for classification.

CONCEPTIONS OF RIGHT AND WRONG

The Negro adolescents were asked to write their ideas concerning lying, stealing, and cheating. After the teacher had passed out large sheets of writing paper, on which had been previously placed identification numbers to correspond with a class list, the

teacher gave the class orally the following directions:

I am trying to find out something about the ideas of pupils. You can help me by saying exactly what comes to your mind. I shall ask a question. You are to think carefully before attempting an answer. Remember I shall not read your answer; you do not have to sign your name to your paper.

Be sure to answer each question with two or three sentences. If you don't know an answer, then write, "I don't know."

The teacher read each of the following questions carefully, allowing sufficient time for the boys and girls to write a thoughtful answer.

What is stealing?

Why is it, or is it not, right to steal?

What is cheating?

Why is it, or is it not, right to cheat?

What is lying?

Why do you, or do you not, like a liar for a friend?

Why do you, or do you not, like to have friends?

What kind of person is a good mother?

After the data were collected, a frequency distribution of responses was tabulated. The total responses of the group were changed to percentages. Variations of the same assignment given in November, February, and May were slight.

Stealing.—All adolescents except two defined stealing as taking something that did not belong to them. The majority in both classes agreed that it was not right to steal.

As the reader can see by Table 1, 54 per cent of the lower-class adolescents considered stealing wrong from a selfish viewpoint, that is, they were

afraid of getting caught. Only 16 per cent of the middle-class adolescents expressed the same view. Forty-three per cent of the middle-class pupils and 17 per cent of the lower-class pupils stated that stealing was wrong because their friends would dislike them. This response shows the same consideration of the self but in a more social light.

class adolescents and 31 per cent of the middle-class adolescents wrote that cheating was wrong because someone would find it out. More lower-class adolescents than middle-class adolescents expressed an aversion to cheating because it was a hindrance to pleasure. Sixty-four per cent of the lower class, as compared with 58 per cent of the middle class,

TABLE I
PERCENTAGES OF NEGRO BOYS AND GIRLS IN MIDDLE AND LOWER CLASSES GIVING
VARIOUS REASONS WHY STEALING AND CHEATING ARE OFFENSES

REASONS	MIDDLE CLASS*			LOWER CLASS*		
	Percent- age of Boys	Percent- age of Girls	Percent- age of All Chil- dren	Percent- age of Boys	Percent- age of Girls	Percent- age of All Chil- dren
It is wrong to steal because:						
You might get caught.....	17	16	16	53	54	54
Your friends won't like you.....	40	46	43	13	21	17
You will get a bad name.....	31	26	28	15	15	15
No answer.....	12	10	11	18	9	13
It is wrong to cheat because:						
Someone will find it out.....	30	32	31	75	39	56
Someone will cheat you back.....				13	2	7
Children will not want to play games with you.....	69	49	58	66	62	64
You will make no progress.....	1	2	2	3	6	5
No answer.....	1	16	9			

* The totals of some groups of percentages are more than 100 because some children gave two or three reasons why it is wrong to steal and cheat.

Cheating.—Cheating was defined in terms of games, school, and parents. More lower-class adolescents than middle-class adolescents defined cheating in terms of games, and more middle-class adolescents than lower-class adolescents defined cheating in terms of classroom situations.

In regard to the question, "Why is it, or is it not, right to cheat?" Table I shows that 56 per cent of the lower-

stated that cheating was wrong because no one would want to play games with a person who cheated.

Lying.—Most of the boys and girls in each class agreed that lying was telling an untruth. The responses concerning not wanting liars for friends were listed in categories. Forty-three per cent of the lower-class children, as compared with 14 per cent of the middle class, disliked having liars for

friends because of the harm that liars would bring to them. Likewise, middle-class youngsters expressed concern for themselves when they stated that a liar would give them a bad name.

Friends.—Table 2 presents the distribution of replies to the question, "Why do you, or do you not, like having friends?" More lower-class adoles-

A good mother.—Pupils listed many responses concerning the attributes and personality traits of a good mother. More girls than boys in each group displayed an interest in homemaking when they wrote, "A good mother makes a comfortable home for her children." Thirty-one per cent of the lower class, in comparison with 1 per cent of the middle class, stated that a

TABLE 2
PERCENTAGES OF NEGRO BOYS AND GIRLS IN MIDDLE AND LOWER CLASSES
GIVING VARIOUS REASONS FOR LIKING FRIENDS

REASONS	MIDDLE CLASS			LOWER CLASS		
	Percent- age of Boys	Percent- age of Girls	Percent- age of All Chil- dren	Percent- age of Boys	Percent- age of Girls	Percent- age of All Chil- dren
Friends help you out.....	12	18	15	48	32	40
Friends tell you the truth about yourself...	2	4	3	17	33	26
Friends help you to have fun.....	36	41	39	12	14	13
Friends get on your side in fights.....	2	2	2	22	23	23
Friends do more for you than relatives...	4	2	3	28	42	35
Friends take you to the movies.....		1	1	5	18	12
Friends help you when you are sick.....	10	20	15	15	9	12
Friends give you money.....	4	2	3	46	45	45
You can't live in this world alone.....	16	29	23	2	6	4
Friends co-operate with you.....	11	15	13			
You can help them out.....	40	40	40	2	3	3
You can visit each other.....	43	50	47	10	11	11
Friends make you happy.....	31	20	25	12	14	13
Friends are good company.....	22	37	30	2	2	2
Friends do not talk about you.....	10	8	9	38	53	46

cents than middle-class adolescents stated a liking for friends because of the help that friends could be to them. Typical answers were: "Friends get on your side in fights." "Friends take you to the movies." "Friends give you money." Thirty per cent of the middle class stated that friends were good company, but only 2 per cent of the lower class mentioned this reason for liking to have friends.

good mother gives money to her child when he wants it. Twenty-three per cent of the middle class stated that a good mother makes her child obey the teacher. Only 1 per cent of the lower class said the same. Fifty per cent of the lower class and only 2 per cent of the middle class stated that a good mother gives her children clean clothes daily.

Levels of conduct, according to Mc-

Dougall.—What are the levels of human conduct reflected in the values of lower- and middle-class adolescents? McDougall refers to four levels of human conduct upon which to study the problems of adolescent moral growth.² The responses of the adolescents regarding lying, stealing, and cheating were tabulated according to these four levels. The lowest level of moral development is "instinctive behavior," which attaches great importance to the preservation of life. This level is

development—concern for the approval of the "peer society." A child who states that stealing is wrong because of the harm that it will do to others has reached the fourth level of moral development—"altruism." Percentages of responses for each activity were listed, and the responses were averaged for each level of moral development. These percentages are shown in Table 3. The highest average of responses for the middle class (65 per cent) was at the third level of

TABLE 3

REASONS GIVEN BY NEGRO ADOLESCENTS IN MIDDLE AND LOWER CLASSES WITH REGARD TO THE WRONGFULNESS OF CHEATING, LYING, AND STEALING CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO MCDUGALL'S LEVELS OF MORAL DEVELOPMENT

MCDUGALL'S LEVEL OF MORAL DEVELOPMENT	PERCENTAGE OF MIDDLE-CLASS PUPILS				PERCENTAGE OF LOWER-CLASS PUPILS			
	Stealing	Lying	Cheating	Average	Stealing	Lying	Cheating	Average
Instinct.....	4	2	33	16	4	18
Rewards or punishment.....	26	21	14	20	44	67	46	52
Social approval.....	55	70	69	65	19	16	50	28
Altruism.....	13	9	17	13	3	2	2

exemplified by a reason such as this: "I think it is right to steal, if a person is starving and wants food." The second level is "rewards or punishment." A child who states that lying is wrong because his mother will punish him if she finds out has reached the second level of moral development. The third level is termed "social approval." The adolescents who said that it was wrong to cheat because their friends would not want to play with them have reached the third level of moral de-

moral development—social approval. The highest average of responses for the lower class (52 per cent) was at the second level of moral development—rewards or punishment.

THE IDEAL SELF

The three hundred Negro adolescents were asked to write essays on the subject, "The Person I Would Like To Be Like." The fact that this assignment was not a part of their regular class work and that they were told not to place their names on their papers could be considered as making for a favorable attitude toward the

² William McDougall, *An Introduction to Social Psychology*, p. 321. Boston: John W. Luce & Co., 1918.

task. Identification numbers had been previously placed on the back of each child's paper. In order to guide the oral directions given by each teacher to her class, the following information was typed and given to her:

Give to the pupils a large sheet of lined paper. Be sure that they have pen or pencil and that they are listening carefully to you. Say to them, "I am trying to find out something about the ideas of boys and girls. I would like you to write a composition. The title of the composition must be 'The Person I Would Like To Be Like.' Tell something about the age, character, appearance, and occupation of the person. This person can be real, imaginary, or a combination of many persons you know. Be sure to state this. You need not give his real name, if you don't want to. I shall not read these papers; someone else will. You do not have to place your name on these papers. Please remember to think carefully before you write. Remember that it is important to write exactly what you think. If you write only true thoughts, you will help the person who will read the composition to find out many things about children."

While the pupils are writing, you can make out the class list to correspond with the numbers on the back of the composition paper.

This assignment was given to the same children in November, February, and May. Variations of responses for the three months were slight. (If a child made a different statement, the general pattern of thought was the same. In November one boy wrote that he would like to be like Eddie "Rochester" Anderson. In May he stated that he would like to be like Joe Louis. The pattern of thought is similar because both times he named a

popular and talented adult.) The responses were classified according to the sex and the social status of the adolescent. The three sets of percentages, those for November, February, and May, were averaged. The average of these three responses is given in Table 4.

The classification of ideals differs from those used in former studies by Estelle M. Darrah,³ David S. Hill,⁴ and Sister Mary Inez Phelan.⁵ The categories used here were suggested by Dr. Robert J. Havighurst, of the University of Chicago.

Selection of the ideal self.—An adolescent frequently engages in a type of hero worship. The hero or other personality is the goal object of himself. In this study the person whom the adolescent wishes to be like is called the "ideal self."

The responses concerning the ideal self were tabulated in eight categories. The category "glamorous adult" refers to a person who has become popular because of his or her unusual talent. This talent is usually contemporaneous with a fad of the age; the popularity is therefore ephemeral. The largest percentage in each group selected a "glamorous

³ Estelle M. Darrah, "A Study of Children's Ideals," *Popular Science Monthly*, LIII (1898), 88-94.

⁴ David S. Hill, "Personification of Ideals by Urban Children," *Journal of Social Psychology*, I (August, 1930), 379-92.

⁵ Sister Mary Inez Phelan, *An Empirical Study of the Ideals of Adolescent Boys and Girls*. Washington: Catholic University of America, 1936.

adult" to represent the ideal self. Hazel Scott and Lena Horne were the two "glamorous adults" selected by the girls, while "Rochester" and Joe Louis were the persons selected by the boys.

"heroes," while 2 per cent of the lower-class adolescents did the same.

More middle-class boys and girls than lower-class boys and girls selected "successful adults" in the community to represent the ideal self. Of

TABLE 4

CLASSIFICATION OF PERSON AND ATTRIBUTES AND AGE OF PERSON CONCEIVED AS IDEAL SELF BY NEGRO BOYS AND GIRLS IN MIDDLE AND LOWER CLASSES

PERSON CONCEIVED AS IDEAL SELF	MIDDLE CLASS			LOWER CLASS		
	Percent- age of Boys	Percent- age of Girls	Percent- age of All Chil- dren	Percent- age of Boys	Percent- age of Girls	Percent- age of All Chil- dren
Classification:						
Family member.....	9	12	11	2	8	5
Teacher.....	12	10	5	4	4	4
Age mate.....	10	7	9	3	2	2
Hero.....	21	2	6	2	7	5
Successful adult.....	6	9	15	2	7	5
Composite or imaginary.....	6	10	8	2	1	1
Military figure.....	6	3	4	2	1	1
Glamorous adult.....	32	43	38	66	76	71
Not classified.....	4	4	4	20	4	12
Attributes:						
Qualities of beauty.....	43	69	57	60	74	67
Gratitude, personal liking.....	42	28	35	43	48	46
Position, fame.....	17	13	15	40	29	34
Moral qualities (kindness, etc.).....	62	44	52	13	6	9
Intellectual qualities.....	19	26	23	15	15	15
Age:						
10-19.....	14	10	12	10	14	12
20-29.....	41	40	40	70	82	76
30-39.....	22	24	23	17	5	11
40-49.....	2	4	3			
50 and over.....	5	4	4			
Not given.....	15	17	16	3	1	1

The category "Hero" refers to someone who is well known for a high type of character. Historical figures of the past, such as Andrew Jackson, Abraham Lincoln, and Clara Barton, were classified as "heroes." Usually the life of the hero is past. Six per cent of the middle-class adolescents wrote about

course there are more successful adults in a middle-class society than there are in a lower-class society. "Successful" here implies attaining some worth-while degree of economic, moral, and social prestige. The characteristics of the "successful adult" are of a more solid and lasting type, as compared

with the ephemeral characteristics of "glamorous adults." Moreover, these adults are living now and visible to the child. Negro educators, nurses, doctors, etc., were placed in this category.

The category "Composite or imaginary" refers to an imaginary representation of the ideal self; the person, a sum total of traits of others, existed only in the minds of the writers. The following description is an example:

The person I would like to be like is as good-looking as Lena Horne. She plays the piano as well as Hazel Scott. She has a beautiful shape like Betty Grable. This person goes around to camps to entertain the soldiers who are trying to stop Hitler.

More middle-class than lower-class youngsters wrote about composite or imaginary persons. Intelligence is a conditioning factor here, since children of the middle group have a relatively higher intelligence quotient than do those of the lower group and since it requires greater mental ability to select the traits of many people and to make a composite or imaginary person for the ideal self than it requires to choose a real person.

Many persons have become famous because of their exploits in the present war. History has not yet proved these figures to be "heroes," like the persons mentioned previously. Thus a category "Military figures" was made. Such people as General MacArthur and General Eisenhower were included in this category. Four per cent of the middle-class youngsters wrote about military figures. Only 1 per

cent of the lower-class adolescents did the same.

Some of the pupils wrote in such a vague manner that it was difficult to place the ideal self in any definite category. Hence the category "Not classified" was added.

Character and personality of the ideal self.—The attributes or qualities of the ideal self were also put into categories, as shown in Table 4. More of the middle-class adolescents mentioned altruistic characteristics than did the lower class. Here are expressions of altruism:

I would like to be like Father Cassidy so I could help to make all the boys of the neighborhood happy.

The person I would like to be like is a nurse that I know. She doesn't laugh at the children if they are dirty. She is kind and does a lot to help sick people. She even gives the poor money.

Such altruistic values as loving others, being kind to others, being thoughtful, helping the poor, and making children and soldiers happy were used. Fifty-two per cent of middle-class youngsters, as compared with 9 per cent of lower-class youngsters, mentioned these traits.

More of the lower-class adolescents included material advantages in their compositions than did middle-class boys and girls. The following descriptions were given by lower-class adolescents:

I would like to be like Hazel Scott. Then I would have plenty of money, pretty teeth, and I would be famous.

The person I would like to be like is Mr.

Davis. Then I could have a big car and plenty of girls. I would wear my hair parted and have plenty of good suits.

Twenty-three per cent of the middle-class and 15 per cent of the lower-class youngsters thought of the ideal self as having intellectual qualities and traits of leadership. Such skills as the ability to talk well, to solve difficult problems in mathematics, and to write interesting stories were mentioned.

Age of the ideal self.—The age of each ideal self was either mentioned definitely or determined from the characteristics and names of the persons mentioned. Because of the large selection of "glamorous adults" for the ideal self, a preponderance of choices are for persons between the ages of twenty and twenty-nine.

SUMMARY

The results of this study provide data definitely supporting the theory that environment conditions the moral and social values of middle- and lower-class adolescents.

Both classes of adolescents possess egoistic morality views. Egoism here implies that adolescents are primarily interested in themselves; this self-interest is less likely than egotism to suggest offensive self-conceit. Adolescents express their moral interpretations of activities in the light of social experiences most interesting to them. Middle-class adolescents have aver-

sions to cheating, lying, and stealing from an altruistic or social sense, while the lower-class adolescents tend to express their aversions from a materialistic or nonsocial viewpoint. Judging from McDougall's scale of social development, middle-class adolescents have reached a higher degree of moral development than have lower-class adolescents.

In choosing the person they most wished to be like, middle-class adolescents selected more "successful adults" than did the lower-class adolescents. Lower-class adolescents most frequently chose "glamorous adults" to represent the ideal self. Middle-class adolescents stressed moral, altruistic, and intellectual qualities of the ideal self, while the lower-class adolescents stressed physical beauty, personal liking, and fame. The most influential single determinant of the ideal self seems to be the movies.

Despite the fact that the writer recognizes many limitations in an empirical study of this type (one of the outstanding limitations being the use of the teacher's judgment for social classification rather than social participation of the individuals), the data enable educators to see that the effects produced on the individual by his social contacts are not superficial or trivial, but that they are genuine transformations of moral and social ideas and values.

WANTED: TEACHERS OF ENGLISH IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES

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*

IMPORTANCE OF ENGLISH AS AN INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE

THE victory of the United Nations will open an unparalleled opportunity for teachers of English. Already English is the dominant language of the world from the commercial and cultural points of view, and, at the end of the war, it will become the dominant language from the political point of view as well. The postwar association of the two great English-speaking nations with Russia and China will inevitably produce in those countries an accelerated demand for English, a demand that will be reflected from every corner of the world. Ten years' experience with the Good Neighbor policy as formulated by President Roosevelt has given some indication of what the entrance of the United States upon the international scene means to English teachers. The twenty-one cultural institutes established in Latin America by the Department of State and the Office of the Co-ordinator of Inter-American Affairs could be multiplied tenfold and still would not meet the demand. The main activity in these institutes is teaching English. What is going to happen when peace comes and the inevitable world-wide de-

mand for English makes itself felt? Where will the teachers come from? Will the teaching be left to the professional teachers of foreign languages? Or will English teachers recognize that teaching English as a foreign language is a legitimate, fascinating, and incredibly important branch of their profession and prepare themselves accordingly?

The field has been largely neglected. One can go from an undergraduate major in English to the doctorate without ever hearing a reference to the problems that English presents to the foreigner. Perhaps the neglect has been due to the feeling that the matter is not important, that anyone who speaks English can teach it to a foreigner—as if anyone who breathes can explain the chemistry of the atmosphere. Perhaps it has been felt, also, that professional opportunities were limited to night classes for immigrants in large cities.

Anyone who has ever tried to learn a foreign language from a native speaker unexperienced in teaching it knows how false the first point of view is: the would-be instructor probably had no idea of what to teach or how to teach it. As for the second notion, that there are only limited opportunities

for teaching English as a foreign language, however true it may once have been, it is now, as far as Latin America is concerned, utterly false; and, with the coming of peace, it will be false as far as most of the world is concerned.

Consider the situation today in South America. Every professional student in a university is compelled to rely on foreign-language textbooks—formerly mostly French but increasingly English. This is true in the fields of medicine, engineering, pharmacy, and, to a lesser extent, in law; in architecture, dentistry, music, and art. Aside from the professions, the ordinary clerk or stenographer can get a better position at a better salary if he knows English. The “want-ad” sections of South American newspapers clamor constantly for English-speaking employees. It is not unusual, for example, for *El Tiempo* of Bogotá to carry on its front page three different advertisements asking for English-speaking employees. Besides these professional and commercial reasons for knowing English, there are the cultural reasons. The American way of life, American literature, art, music, philosophy, science—in short, the United States of America, everything it is and everything it aspires to be—has for South Americans a forthright, unappeasable interest. American books on any subject are the preferred sources of information, the preferred authorities. To go to the United States, at least for a visit, is every Latin American’s dream; to have been

there, even for a visit, is his passport to cultural and social prestige; to have studied there, for however short a time, is an almost infallible guaranty of professional success.

The present status of English in Latin America will almost certainly, within a few years, be the status of English in the entire world. Its political position, already a fortunate one, will be immeasurably strengthened by the victory of the United Nations. Not only is English the official language of the United States; it is the official speech of the British Empire, which includes 430 million speakers of other tongues. It is spoken as a native language by 200 million persons—more than one-tenth of the human race—and as a second language by millions more. It is the language of government and administration of one-third of mankind. Only Chinese exceeds English in the number of native speakers; and Chinese, though it is one written language, is two spoken languages, each with numerous dialects. Extremely difficult for foreigners to learn, Chinese offers no competition to English on the international scene. If some sort of world order emerges from the present condition of things, English will be the international medium of that order.

A FIELD NEGLECTED BY THE ENGLISH-TEACHING PROFESSION

How well prepared are English teachers to contribute to the spread of English in foreign lands? How much do they know about the nature and

the peculiarities of English as seen by foreign eyes? How much of the special technique required for teaching a foreign language do they possess?

Here is what a British scholar says on these points (and the British have been sending teachers abroad far longer than we have):

The problem of teaching our tongue to foreigners who wish to learn it by study is one that has never been approached properly, and one which it is in our national interest to solve. Hitherto such teaching has been left to unco-ordinated private initiative. There is no system of sending abroad and to the colonies English specialists technically equipped to teach English to those to whom it is a foreign tongue, and to demonstrate the right methods of teaching. . . .

The result of our remissness is that, although a certain amount of interesting and valuable pioneer work is being done by persons working independently, there is much need for improvement in the methods of teaching English to foreigners. Teachers who are not well acquainted with English but are employed because they can speak the tongue of those whom they teach; or who know English only and are ignorant of the difficulties it presents, which vary according to the nationality of the pupils; or who are innocent of phonetic knowledge; or who spend their time endeavoring to instil the ancient and obsolete principles derived from Latin grammar under the delusion that they are explaining the structure of modern English—all these can produce untold confusion and discouragement in the minds of their students, and do untold harm to a cause whose greatness may be realized too late.¹

Dr. Jagger's words are as applicable to the United States as to England. Perhaps there is more excuse in our

case, for at least the United States has never been an empire with over 400 million speakers of other tongues than English under its tutelage; but there can be no excuse for neglecting the problem any longer. Present and future teachers of English must interest themselves in this aspect of their profession. Adequate textbooks must be written, graded readings edited, efficient techniques of instruction developed—in short, the problem of teaching English as a foreign language must be defined and steps taken toward its solution, from both the linguistic and the pedagogical points of view.

The lack of satisfactory textbooks for teaching English to foreigners is nothing short of amazing. The bookstores of Bogotá, "the Athens of South America," stock, and apparently sell, a textbook that first appeared in 1851 and another that, according to the current issue, is in its one hundred and twentieth edition. Both of these volumes, and dozens of others, are characterized by the "hast-thou-seen-Mary" brand of English, and they labor under the handicap of having been written by foreigners with an imperfect feeling for the language and of being formidable and cumbersome in presentation. The government's Latin-American cultural institutes, faced with the necessity of teaching English without textbooks, have mostly improvised their materials, sometimes distributing them in mimeographed form, sometimes printing them in cheap pamphlet form. Hastily

¹ J. Hubert Jagger, *English in the Future*, pp. 138-39. London: Thomas Nelson & Sons, 1940.

and superficially prepared, usually by teachers without professional training in English, they abound in errors instantly obvious to the expert but, unhappily, not at all obvious to the students who use them. The result is time wasted in misrepresenting the facts, in emphasizing the unimportant, in lingering over the obvious. The number of hours of wasted labor spent in English study by students in other countries must annually reach astronomical proportions.

There exist excellent opportunities for the production of textbooks designed to teach English to foreigners. The writing of textbooks, however, like the teaching of English, should be undertaken by persons with professional training in English. Both the Division of Cultural Relations of the Department of State and the Office of the Co-ordinator of Inter-American Affairs are said to have projects under way for the production of textbooks, but there are strong reasons for believing that the projects will be slow in producing results. Even if two such government agencies as these should assemble a corps of experts, and even if these experts should be primarily experts in English rather than in Spanish or French, and even if this slightly fantastic method should succeed in producing a really good textbook or series of textbooks, there would still be abundant room for private initiative. No one textbook can possibly be completely acceptable to the eighteen nations of Spanish-speaking Latin America, each of them intensely nationalistic. Furthermore,

even within a limited area, as American experience with textbooks amply demonstrates, there is room for novelty and variety.

SPECIAL TRAINING NEEDED

What kind of special training does the English teacher need in order to redirect his professional equipment to the problem of teaching English to foreigners? First of all, he needs at least an elementary knowledge of phonetics, especially of the mechanics of sound production. He should understand the basic intonation patterns of English speech. He should have some acquaintance with word-frequency counts and their results. In addition to his knowledge of conventional English grammar, he should thoroughly understand which grammatical constructions perplex foreigners. From the pedagogical point of view, it would be well if he had an opportunity to examine a number of textbooks designed to teach English as a foreign language and to discuss with experienced teachers the actual classroom technique.

At this point the question may be asked: What about the need of knowing the language native to the student? The advantages of such knowledge are obvious. It establishes from the beginning a two-way communication between teacher and student. The student can ask questions, and the teacher can answer them in the language common to both. Points needing explanation can be rapidly and accurately dealt with. Knowledge of the student's language enables the teacher

better to understand the student's difficulties. It makes possible a combination of the deductive with the inductive approach.

However, there are drawbacks when the teacher speaks the student's language. For one thing, the teacher, eager to achieve complete communication, is likely to use the student's language too much. It is easier to do so. Learning a foreign language, however, is almost entirely a matter of hearing it and speaking it, reading it and writing it. To the average person grammatical principles mean little. They may establish a pattern, but facility in interpreting and using the pattern comes only through interpreting and using it. The teacher of a foreign language finds it difficult to restrict himself to the language that he is teaching—perhaps in a different way as difficult for him as for the student—but there is much to be said for such restriction. Even when the student does not grasp quite all that is said, his ear is being trained to recognize the individual sounds and the intonation-melody of the phrase. Such experience has for the beginner in a foreign language the same importance that listening to music has for a child learning his scales. Neither learner is prepared to grasp the full import of the complex marvel presented to him, but it may stir him and shape him just the same. Without such experience we should have neither musicians nor linguists.

It may be that many English teachers, especially those already established, will feel that devoting them-

selves to teaching the elements of the language to foreigners holds little appeal in comparison with the joys of expounding the greatest literature in the world. In a sense they are right; but the opportunities in the foreign-language field lie on two levels. Careerists are needed, certainly—men and women thoroughly trained in English, who will devote themselves wholeheartedly to teaching English as a foreign language; to producing in a sane, critical atmosphere the needed materials; to training their fellows in the techniques and the devices which they find most effective. In addition to the specialist scholars, an army of teachers must be mobilized from the profession at large to serve for two years or three, if no more, in teaching English as a foreign language to the millions who want to learn it, from Monterrey to Santiago and from Moscow to Chungking. After such experience these teachers will return to their native land spiritually enriched; their native literary culture more vividly realized; their philosophy deepened, internationalized. While they are abroad, they will have the satisfaction of knowing that they are assisting in the most humane of all enterprises, that of giving to man a means of communicating his thoughts and sentiments to his fellows of other races and colors and creeds. There will never be one world until there is one language in which the sensitive and gifted of whatever clime can meet on a common intellectual and spiritual ground. The humanities have never been isolationist.

A SURVEY OF HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATES OF 1942

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*

TO BE of the utmost service to the community at all times, the school must select, from the world about it, those new factors worthy of being assimilated into a previously well-proved order of learning. Comments from its graduates who so recently have stepped from the school into the world must necessarily be one means of determining what of the new to assimilate into the old and what of the old to cast off. At the Woodrow Wilson High School, Washington, D.C., a survey has been made of every class during the year following its graduation. The survey of the graduates of 1942 is of particular significance because it is the first survey made since Pearl Harbor.

A questionnaire was mailed on March 17, 1943, to the 508 graduates of 1942. Through repeated follow-up work, 424 returns were received by the close of school, a yield of slightly better than 83 per cent. The returns were tabulated by the author during the ensuing school year, and a brief digest of the findings follows.

CLASSIFICATION OF GRADUATES

Sixty-three per cent of the graduates who responded to the questionnaire were continuing their formal

education in 1943. Fifty-five per cent were attending school full time, 4 per cent were attending school full time and working part time, and 4 per cent were working full time and attending school part time. By far the most popular type of school was the university, such an institution having been selected by as many graduates as attended all other types of schools combined. Less than 2 per cent of the girls entered nurses' training schools, while less than 1 per cent entered teachers' colleges; no boys attended teachers' colleges. The armed forces had taken 36 per cent of the boys and one girl.

FIELDS OF SPECIAL INTEREST

One of the most indicative phases of the study was that of the fields of special interest. One hundred and sixty boys mentioned forty-four fields in which they were especially interested. Fields named five or more times were chemistry, engineering, aeronautical engineering, chemical engineering, civil engineering, electrical engineering, mechanical engineering, foreign service, forestry, government, law, mathematics, medicine, military career, naval career, physics, and science.

The range of interests among the girls was more limited; 192 girls mentioned only 43 fields. Girls' interests named five or more times were art, biology, history, home economics, language, liberal arts, music, secretarial work, and stenographic work.

Table 1 shows the distribution of boys and girls choosing the seven most popular fields. The scientific field is by far the most popular, 30 per cent of

On the other hand, the lack of interest in some fields is also thought-provoking. The legal profession has been overpopulated, but, if these returns are at all indicative, there will be a reversal of present conditions, for just slightly over 1 per cent of all graduates (six boys and no girls) are interested in this profession. The field of education is even less popular, if one interprets the tabulation literally, for

TABLE 1
SEVEN FIELDS CHOSEN MOST FREQUENTLY AS FIELDS OF
SPECIAL INTEREST BY HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATES

FIELD	NUMBER CHOOSING FIELD AS FIELD OF SPECIAL INTEREST			PERCENTAGE CHOOSING FIELD AS FIELD OF SPECIAL INTEREST*
	Boys	Girls	Total	
Engineering.....	41	41	12
Science.....	27	18	45	13
Medicine and nursing.....	15	4	19	5
Secretarial work.....	1	15	16	4
Armed services.....	13	13	4
Language.....	1	12	13	4
Home economics.....	8	8	2

* Percentages are based on a total of 354 graduates who answered this part of the questionnaire.

all graduates replying having indicated an interest in fields requiring scientific preparation. An honor student attending college pleads for continued emphasis on laboratory instruction, remarking:

With the need of the country for experienced physicists and chemists as expressed repeatedly in Selective Service deferment directives, it is a waste of good time to study the purely theoretical aspects of science without taking the laboratory work that gives experience and helps you remember and understand the theory.

only 0.7 per cent (no boys and three girls) state that their ambitions are in this line. No doubt some who have indicated their interests in various subject fields, such as economics, English, languages, mathematics, etc., will teach eventually. The percentage of interest in the ministry as a profession is practically zero. One girl recorded "Bible" as her major interest, but this answer could be interpreted in various ways.

The questionnaire was so arranged

that "field of special interest" was associated with occupation, and no avocational interests were reported. The results, therefore, are of particular significance to those engaged in vocational guidance and curriculum planning. It would be not only interesting but useful to correlate the complete tabulation of the data with anticipated postwar needs and with present curriculum offerings on both the secondary and the college levels. The replies of 352 young people are worthy of consideration.

NATURE OF REMUNERATIVE EMPLOYMENT

Types of employment and remuneration vary so widely in different parts of the country that this aspect of the study is of little value for placement work. However, when one considers the educational philosophy growing out of the findings and the effect of present employment conditions on this generation of young people, the data may have far-reaching implications.

Forty-five types of work were performed by boys and thirty-four types by girls. Boys working full time averaged \$29.06 for forty-eight and a half hours. The earning range was from \$18.00 to \$40.00, the latter salary having been earned by a pay-roll clerk. Girls working full time earned more than boys; they averaged \$31.28 for forty-seven hours. Their earning range was from \$18.00 to \$45.00, the latter salary having been paid to a receptionist.

Both boys and girls working tem-

porarily earned more than did those working on a permanent basis. Boys in this category averaged \$29.86 for forty-five hours. Most of these boys went to college in the autumn or continued working until induction into the armed forces. Their earning range was from \$8.00 to \$70.00 a week. Girls doing part-time work averaged \$30.21 for forty-two hours, but all these girls resumed their formal education in the autumn.

As was indicated previously, only 4 per cent of the graduates worked while attending college full time. It is suspected that most of the students earned so much money during the summer that they were able to continue their college educations without the additional burden of part-time remunerative employment.

These figures raise the question: What will be the psychological effects of this easy earning power? When wages decline, what will be the reaction of the mechanic, the carpenter, and the receptionist who earned, respectively, \$70.00, \$55.00, and \$45.00 a week when they were inexperienced? What will they do to compensate for the decrease in wages? How will this decrease in wages affect their morale, their attitude toward things in general?

VALUE OF HIGH-SCHOOL SUBJECTS

It was gratifying to learn from the questionnaires that 81 per cent of the graduates rated their high-school education as more than "fairly sufficient," the majority of these feeling that it had been "very helpful." The 19 per

cent who rated their education as less than adequate gave these reasons, named in order of frequency: (1) not knowing how to study, (2) insufficient preparation for college methods, (3) poor preparation in English, (4) lack of study, (5) poor preparation in mathematics, and (6) choice of wrong subjects.

In that part of the questionnaire devoted to remarks, some of these same items recurred, 14 per cent suggesting more emphasis on grammar, composition, and themes, while another 10 per cent recommended more emphasis on knowing how to study, on note-taking, and on outlining.

Both the boys and the girls named forty-one subjects taken in high school which had been most helpful to them. A summary of the replies shows that English was considered the most helpful of all subjects, with mathematics running a close second. Many votes were cast in favor of science, sociology, language, and commercial subjects, in the order named. Trailing, but mentioned with sufficient frequency to merit a position among the first five subjects for some group, were mechanical drawing, home economics, and physical education. Table 2 shows the ratings given subjects by each of the four largest groups of graduates.

If the graduates could replan their high-school programs in view of their present situations, 43 per cent (including twice as many boys as girls) indicated that they would take more mathematics. Other subjects which would receive more consideration by those replying to the questionnaire

are physics, chemistry, shorthand, typewriting, composition, Spanish, and grammar. Again the emphasis is on mathematics, science, and formal English.

When asked why they did not take the subjects they now regret not having taken, 65 per cent replied that the use of these subjects was not foreseen. This answer provides an overwhelming argument for more guidance, for a better understanding of the needs of graduates, and for a greater willingness on the part of pupils and parents to take the advice offered by teachers and guidance officers.

So few wished that they had omitted any courses taken that no subject was mentioned frequently enough to be of significance.

Approximately 150 courses were suggested for addition to the curriculum, but no course was sufficiently popular to be of significance. Major emphasis, however, was on formal English. Again, need for guidance on how to study was evident.

EXTRA-CURRICULUM ACTIVITIES

As undergraduates, 69 per cent of the pupils surveyed participated in fifty-nine extra-curriculum activities. Each boy averaged 2.5 activities, while the average number of activities for each girl was 3.2.

One criterion for the selection of extra-curriculum activities is their carry-over value. Table 3 shows, in order of importance, the five extra-curriculum activities having the greatest carry-over value. This table shows a much lower carry-over than would

appear in normal times. Few of the boys in the armed forces engage in any activity other than the regular routine of training. Their comments indicated that they had no time for anything else. A young man attending

ous aspects of life. These qualities, of course, constitute the finest type of carry-over value, although an influence on adjustment usually connotes an actual continuation of an activity.

TABLE 2
FIVE SUBJECTS TAKEN IN HIGH SCHOOL RATED MOST HELPFUL BY
BOY AND GIRL GRADUATES IN FOUR LARGEST GROUPS

SUBJECT AND PRESENT OCCUPATION	BOYS		GIRLS	
	Value Assigned*	Rank	Value Assigned*	Rank
Attending university:				
Mathematics.....	3.42	1	.65	5
Science.....	2.50	2	1.28	3
English.....	2.02	3	3.02	1
Social studies.....	.90	4	1.55	2
Language.....	.62	5	1.13	4
Attending liberal-arts college:				
Mathematics.....	4.06	1	.88	5
English.....	2.28	2	2.43	1
Science.....	1.77	3	1.25	4
Mechanical drawing.....	.66	4		
Language.....	.42	5	2.16	2
Social studies.....			1.31	3
In the armed forces:				
Mathematics.....	2.49	1		
Science.....	1.83	2		
English.....	1.56	3		
Social studies.....	.81	4		
Physical education.....	.28	5		
Working full time:				
Commercial subjects.....			3.43	1
English.....			2.89	2
Mathematics.....			1.37	3
Social studies.....			.77	4
Home economics.....			.47	5

* The value was determined by assigning weights of 4, 3, 2, and 1 to the subjects mentioned in first, second, third, and fourth places, respectively. The totals were divided by the number of graduates in each category.

a university said, "Almost all extra-curriculum activities have ceased during the war."

Another criterion for the selection of extra-curriculum activities is their power to further interest and appreciation or to effect adjustment in vari-

In the field of civic and world affairs, the high-school activities most frequently mentioned as having furthered interest were the Panel Club and the Social Studies Club. As would be expected, athletics was outstanding in the fields of health and recrea-

tion. The activity which was the second most helpful in connection with recreation was the fraternal organization. Of course the Glee Club was the most pertinent in furthering interest and appreciation in music. The activity which had most affected adjustments in personal responsibility was the Cadet Corps. Tying for second place in promotion of responsibility were student government, pub-

the numbers would be too meager to be significant, such a study might be applied to several schools operating under the same system.

If the report of such a survey is given careful consideration by administrators and faculty, it can have a real place in modifying advantageously various factors of an educational institution. At Woodrow Wilson High School courses in grammar and com-

TABLE 3
FIVE EXTRA-CURRICULUM ACTIVITIES HAVING THE HIGHEST CARRY-OVER
VALUE FOR HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATES

ACTIVITY	PARTICIPATING IN HIGH SCHOOL			PARTICIPATING AFTER GRADUATION		
	Number of Boys	Number of Girls	Percentage	Percentage Continuing to Participate	Percentage Participating for First Time	Total Percentage
Athletics (all forms).....	95	69	40	18	16	34
Cadet Corps.....	83	20	10	10	20
Fraternal organizations....	36	33	14	7	9	13
Music (all forms).....	36	60	23	7	5	12
Publications.....	18	54	17	3	7	10

lications, and fraternal organizations. Fraternal organizations were given first place in the field of human relationships. Although the desirability of fraternal organizations in high school is often challenged, these graduates rated them as being decidedly helpful.

In conclusion, it may be said that the value of such a survey to a school is intrinsic. Although an annual study of this kind would be ideal, this plan is not necessarily recommended. Certainly it is well to take inventory occasionally. If a school is so small that

position were added to the curriculum a few years ago as the result of survey reports. The survey of graduates is one method of determining whether the school curriculum is satisfactory. It provides a means of measuring the school's guidance work as well as of directing it. A criterion for planning the school's extra-curriculum program may be obtained. In addition, the survey provides a bond between new alumni and their Alma Mater. The survey has many possibilities and can be made one of the most valuable types of research for a school faculty.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON SECONDARY-SCHOOL INSTRUCTION

I. CURRICULUM, METHODS OF TEACHING AND STUDY AND SUPERVISION, AND MEASUREMENT

LEONARD V. KOOS AND AMY F. OWENS

University of Chicago

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THE following list of selected and annotated references is the first of the thirteenth annual cycle of twenty lists comprehending almost the whole area of education, which is being published co-operatively by the *School Review* and the *Elementary School Journal*. The sequence of divisions within the cycle will remain the same as that of previous years.

The term "instruction" in this list, as in all its predecessors, is comprehensive of curriculum, methods of teaching and study, supervision, and measurement. The vertical scope of secondary education is assumed to extend through junior high school, senior high school, and junior-college years.

The total amount of material it is necessary to examine in the preparation of such a list as the following is less extensive than for earlier lists. Preoccupation with modifications of the curriculum to meet wartime needs seems to be easing off, as the number of writings on wartime adjustments is markedly on the decline. Unfortunately, this decline is not accompanied by a compensating increase

in number and quality of writings concerned with postwar improvements, notwithstanding the imminence of postwar years. Noteworthy exceptions are the publications of the Educational Policies Commission listed as Items 14 and 27 below. Also, few curriculum researches of long-time import are being reported, although one should mention as decided exceptions to this stricture the monographs on the General College of the University of Minnesota (Items 28 and 38).

CURRICULUM¹

- I. ANDERSON, G. LESTER, and OTHERS.
Adapting the High School to Wartime and Postwar Needs. College of Education,

¹ See also Item 89 (Cottrell) in the list of selected references appearing in the February, 1944, number of the *School Review*, Item 509 (Lounsbury) in the October, 1944, number, and Item 600 (Stoddard) in the December, 1944, number of the same journal; Items 329 (Betzner and Woodring), 330 (Goodrich and Folsom), and 351 (Anderson and Krug) in the September, 1944, number of the *Elementary School Journal*. Item 581 (McConnell and Willey) in the December, 1944, number of the *School Review* contains the following item of importance for this list: Charles E. Friley and James A. Starrak, "New Concepts of Terminal Education," pp. 123-28.

University of Minnesota, Modern School Curriculum Series, No. 1. Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minnesota Press, 1943. Pp. viii+54.

Discusses curriculum programs in the University High School of the University of Minnesota organized around the problems which the school faced because of the war—"getting the boys ready for service in the armed forces, meeting certain emergency civilian needs, developing an understanding of what is happening in the world, and preparing for the peace after victory."

2. ASHBAUGH, E. J. "Students Evaluate High School Curriculum," *Peabody Journal of Education*, XXI (March, 1944), 275-80.

An evaluation through ratings by college Freshmen and Seniors of the different subject fields in relation to their expected contribution to achieving the seven objectives of the Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education.

3. BAUER, ELSA G., and ASELTINE, JOHN. "Essential Skills of Daily Living," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XVIII (December, 1943), 464-69.

Considers the "fundamentals" in the curriculum of the San Diego High School, as identified by the faculty in 1937-38, such as attitudes, appreciations, and behaviors, in addition to the traditional learnings.

4. BUNTING, JOHN R. "A Year with the Combined-Study Plan," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XVIII (October, 1943), 373-80.

An exposition of the operation of the "combined-study plan" followed by the Fremont High School of Oakland, California.

5. CARPENTER, MARJORIE. "Wartime Program of Stephens Junior College," *Junior College Journal*, XIV (October, 1943), 62-65.

Describes the wartime program of Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri, where vocational training courses are given as a part of the general education experiences of students.

6. CARR, I. N. "Pre-induction Training," *Junior College Journal*, XIV (February, 1944), 253-55.

Summarizes programs set up by the Pre-induction Training Branch of the Army in schools and colleges and lists the courses in Group I, for orientation needs, and in Group II, for specialized needs.

7. CASWELL, HOLLIS L. "Boys, War and Secondary Education," *Challenges to Education, War and Post-war*, pp. 239-45. Thirtieth Annual Schoolmen's Week Proceedings. University of Pennsylvania Bulletin, Vol. XLIII, No. 32. Philadelphia: School of Education, University of Pennsylvania, 1943.

Advocates five important lines of emphasis teachers and administrators should consider in planning programs to meet the needs of sixteen- and seventeen-year-old boys facing induction.

8. CLINE, E. C. "Education for Military and Civilian Competence," *School Review*, LI (December, 1943), 587-93.

To meet the needs of civilian and military life, suggests a future curriculum program for secondary schools, including physical hardening, mathematics and science, industrial arts, social studies, and language.

9. COLVERT, C. C. "Junior College: An Institution with a Four-fold Purpose," *Southern Association Quarterly*, VIII (May, 1944), 262-70.

Describes the fourfold purpose of the junior college, namely, to offer pre-professional courses, terminal and semiprofessional courses, courses for students who have not completed high school, and adult-education courses.

10. CURRICULUM COMMITTEE OF THE ILLINOIS HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. "Adjustments Recommended in the Secondary-School Curriculum," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXVIII (January, 1944), 66-70.

- A second report by the Curriculum Committee of the Illinois High-School Principals' Association on wartime and postwar adjustments, following up the first report on "The Re-direction Occurring in the High-School Curriculum."
11. *Curriculum Foundations for the San Francisco Secondary Schools*. San Francisco, California: Superintendent of Schools (Civic Auditorium), 1943. Pp. 110.
"A handbook for teacher groups to be selected to do further work in each specific field," presenting reports prepared by committees: "Curriculum Revision Movement," "Changing Local and National Conditions," "The Learning Process," "Basic Growth Needs of Secondary-School Youth," "Special Interests and Leisure Activities," "Preparation of Youth for Work," "Work Experience," "Accumulative Evaluation," and "Administration."
 12. "Desirable Goals for Public Education after the War," *Proposals for Public Education in Postwar America*, pp. 43-59. National Education Association Research Bulletin, Vol. XXII, No. 2. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1944.
Under the subtitle, "The Program To Be Provided," curriculum principles are set forth, and "the general scope and purposes of desirable pupil experiences at various stages or periods of development," including the secondary-school period, are indicated.
 13. DOUGLASS, AUBREY A. "The Reorganization of Secondary Education," *Planning Post-war Education*, pp. 54-60. Proceedings of the Conference on Planning Post-war Education, School of Education, University of California, Los Angeles, January 10 and 11, 1944. Los Angeles, California: Edwin A. Lee, dean, School of Education, University of California, 1944.
Presents numerous objectives and problems in postwar plans for the junior, senior, and four-year high schools in California.
 14. EDUCATIONAL POLICIES COMMISSION. *Education for All American Youth*. Washington: Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, 1944. Pp. x+422.
A platform of education for the youth of the country laid down by the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association. Contains many implications, both direct and indirect, for the curriculum.
 15. GEROW, JAMES A. "An Experience in Curriculum Reconstruction," *High School Journal*, XXVII (January-February, 1944), 21-25.
Sets forth the steps in curriculum reconstruction undertaken by the Lexington (North Carolina) High School, including the education of parents and the making of surveys by faculty and students, and lists a number of results.
 16. HALL, THEODORE O'CONNELL. *The Effectiveness of Secondary School Curricular Offerings in the Occupational Activities of Graduates Who Do Not Attend Accredited Institutions of Higher Learning*. Commonwealth of Kentucky Educational Bulletin, Vol. XI, No. 5. Frankfort, Kentucky: Department of Education, University of Kentucky, 1943. Pp. 233-310.
Presents evaluations of secondary-school curriculum offerings by pupils engaging in occupational activities rather than going on to college and furnishes data on which school authorities might justify changes in curriculum offerings in high school.
 17. HILL, HENRY H. "Changes in the Content of General Education in the War and Post-war Periods," *War and Post-war Responsibilities of American Schools*, pp. 72-83. Compiled and edited by William C. Reavis. Proceedings of the Twelfth Annual Conference for Administrative Officers of Public and Pri-

vate Schools, Vol. VI. Chicago: Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1943.

Discusses changes in general education courses in the twelve-year school in the war and postwar periods and refers to the use of Army teaching methods and co-operative work techniques suggested by the N.Y.A., the C.C.C., and other organizations.

18. JACOBSON, PAUL B. "Inaugurating the Core Program," *Clearing House*, XVIII (March, 1944), 392-95.

Reports the steps taken by the faculty of the University High School, University of Chicago, in studying and inaugurating a core program in Grades VII and VIII.

19. "The Junior High School Teachers and the Curriculum," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXVI (April, 1944), 5-16; (May, 1944), 7-19.

Reviews and interprets the individual guiding principles from the findings of workshop studies of junior high school teachers and includes illustrations and applications.

20. LEONARD, J. PAUL. "Work Experience in Secondary Education," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXVIII (May, 1944), 29-35.

Delineates three concepts of work experience in postwar curriculum problems of secondary schools—development of understanding and experience in democratic living, development of competence to do productive work, and development of individual interests.

21. LITTLE, FAY WARD. "Socio-economic Curriculum Study," *School Review*, LI (October, 1943), 485-91.

An appraisal by adults, who are former pupils of high schools in an agricultural county, of the subjects they had taken in high school.

22. MACKENZIE, GORDON N., and PARKER, J. CECIL (co-chairmen). *Toward a New Curriculum*. 1944 Yearbook, Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development of the National Education

Association of the United States. Washington: Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development, National Education Association, 1944. Pp. iv+192.

Discussion and illustration of dynamic aspects of curriculum improvement in the schools. Generic as to educational level.

23. McLAUGHLIN, SAMUEL J. "What Shall We Salvage?" *Educational Leadership*, I (February, 1944), 267-73.

Reports on what a representative group of persons, acquainted with the secondary school, thinks about curtailing, enhancing, or continuing war innovations in the high-school curriculums.

24. MEANS, JAMES C. "Wartime Education in a Small Rural High School," *Teachers College Record*, XLV (December, 1943), 190-93.

Recounts the development of wartime education in the Comer (Georgia) High School, including the setting-up of the High School Victory program, the adjustments in the curriculum, and the co-operative efforts on the part of the community.

25. NOAR, GERTRUDE A. "Junior High School in Transition," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXVIII (March, 1944), 15-24.

Suggests, by means of a discussion of the organization of the schedule, the integration of subject matter, the planning of pupil experiences, and the like, how the junior high school may be brought in line with both its original purposes and the best modern theory.

26. NORBERG, KENNETH D. *American Democracy and Secondary Education*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 886. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1943. Pp. vi+130.

A study attempting "to appraise the secondary school from the standpoint of the integral relationship between the 'youth problem' and the problem of youth education"

and "to explore the meaning and function of 'organized' subject matter in the school program and to define its relation to the 'activity' curriculum."

27. *Planning for American Youth*. Washington: National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1944. Pp. 64.

Indicated as "A Summary of Education for All American Youth," which is Item 14 in this list. Admirable pictorial presentation of needed improvements in secondary education, including modifications of the curriculum.

28. SPAFFORD, IVOL, and OTHERS. *Building a Curriculum for General Education*. Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minnesota Press, 1943. Pp. xvi+354.

An exposition of procedures and outcomes of curriculum making in what is regarded by many as one of the major experimental developments of a generation at the college level. Highly significant for administrators and teachers concerned with senior high school and junior-college levels.

29. SPAULDING, WILLARD B., and KVARACEUS, WILLIAM C. "A Guide for Construction and Revision of Curriculums," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXVIII (January, 1944), 71-82.

Points out various ways for efficient planning in constructing and revising curriculums and includes consideration of the identification of groups to do the work, a plan for organizing committees, the general plan for action, and the place of the teacher in the program.

METHODS OF TEACHING AND STUDY AND SUPERVISION²

30. BAXTER, BERNICE, and CASSIDY, ROSALIND. *Group Experience, the Democratic Way*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1943. Pp. xviii+218.

² See also Item 549 (Corey) in the list of selected references appearing in the November, 1944, number of the *School Review*.

Although this monograph is not a treatise on method, it presents an analysis which projects a basis for instructional procedures that can and should utilize experience in groups.

31. BROWN, FLORENCE M., and METCALFE, L. S. "Developing Methods of Visualized Instruction," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXVII (December, 1943), 82-85.

Describes the methods used, the need for research, and the first results of the visualized instruction project in the Eye School No. 1, Detroit, Michigan. Generic as to school level.

32. CAMERON, M. A. "The Unit Method of Teaching in the Secondary School," *School* (Secondary Edition), XXXII (October, 1943), 114-17.

Discusses the unit method of secondary-school teaching as a compromise classroom device to provide for individual differences in aptitudes, interests, and abilities of the pupils.

33. GREER, THOMAS H. "Educational Lessons from the Air Force," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XIX (May, 1944), 224-29.

Appraises the educational techniques or "fundamentals" used in the Army Air Force schools which could be applied to public-school teaching methods.

34. PIERCE, PAUL R. "Classroom Guidance of Democratic Living," *School Review*, LI (November, 1943), 523-29.

Recounts the core classroom plan for guidance of democratic living in a large urban school, in order to make democratic living "not only the objective but the very essence of American secondary education."

35. PIERCE, PAUL R. "Types of School Problems Solved through Supervision," *Challenges to Education, War and Post-war*, pp. 116-21. Thirtieth Annual

Schoolmen's Week Proceedings. University of Pennsylvania Bulletin, Vol. XLIII, No. 32. Philadelphia: School of Education, University of Pennsylvania, 1943.

Classifies and describes school problems solved through supervision, such as integration, co-operative planning, teacher load, learning materials, and teacher growth.

36. ROBERTS, ALVIN B. "Audio-visual Aids in the Schools of Tomorrow," *Educational Screen*, XXIII (January, 1944), 9-10, 18. Lists some of the problems to be met in the future use of audio-visual aids in tomorrow's schools.

37. ROYSTER, SALIBELLE. "Department Head Speaks," *Clearing House*, XVIII (October, 1943), 86-89.

Sets forth the responsibilities of the department head, who is an intermediary between administrators and teachers and pupils; also reports on projects initiated in the Reitz High School, Evansville, Indiana.

MEASUREMENT¹

38. ECKERT, RUTH E. *Outcomes of General Education*. Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minnesota Press, 1943. Pp. xiv+210.

The illuminating report of a comprehensive program of evaluation of the curriculum of the University of Minnesota's General College.

39. *The Wright Junior College Study of Terminal General Education*. Edited by the Evaluation Committee of the Wright Junior College, William H. Conley (chairman). Chicago: Wright Junior College, 1944. Pp. 150.

A commendable effort at comprehensive evaluation of the general-education program in Wright Junior College, Chicago.

¹ See also Item 432 (Engelhart) in the list of selected references appearing in the June, 1944, number of the *School Review* and Item 371 (Tyler) in the September, 1944, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

Educational Writings

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REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

HIGHER EDUCATION IN WORLD WAR II.—A chronicle of the efforts and adjustments made by the colleges and universities in helping to prepare thousands of men and women for military service in war-related occupations, written contemporaneously with the occurrence of the events, will be of inestimable value after these institutions have resumed the more normal and placid activities of a life in a world at peace. The volume by Miller and Brooks¹ constitutes a comprehensive and accurate description of the part which the institutions of higher education played in the war up to November, 1943. Though the training of military personnel and of civilians with war-related duties was by no means complete at the end of 1943, the pattern had been set and it is unlikely that it will be fundamentally changed during the remainder of the war. Whatever the postwar corrections required in the statements in this volume, they will be largely statistical in order to bring the figures cited up to date.

Administrators and faculty members will want to read this book, not only because it portrays chronologically the changes which institutions underwent to meet the urgent wartime needs of the nation on the battlefield, in the factories, and in the laboratories, but also because these events have many implications for postwar education. Although the setting of this volume is in the New York system of higher education, local events and facts are projected on a national canvas.

¹ J. Hillis Miller and Dorothy V. N. Brooks, *The Role of Higher Education in War and After*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1944. Pp. xii+222. \$2.50.

The early chapters present statistics showing changes in college and university enrolments by fields of study as the force of the Selective Service Act was felt in academic institutions. The concomitant reduction in the size of faculties through the demands of the armed services and of war industries for highly trained personnel and the measures taken to replace those teachers who left are discussed.

A chapter on the legal and administrative changes which had to be made before the institutions of higher education in New York could meet the urgent needs of a war crisis reveals in arresting and dramatic manner the large extent to which education in this state is under the control of a central agency, namely, the Regents of the University of the State of New York and their appointed agents. The chapter shows how, in a great emergency like a world war, laws can be modified to provide the desired flexibility in the practices and procedures in educational institutions. The problem of making desirable and needed changes in peacetime, in the absence of the agitating effect of a national crisis, is raised by this description of the method by which such changes must be accomplished. Those who are concerned about the consequences of a further centralization of control of higher education in the national government will profit by reading chapter iv of this volume.

The reviewer was somewhat confused by the discussion pro and con of the merits of acceleration of the educational process. The authors seem to be assuming that the abridgment of the content of high-school or college courses and the compression of the same con-

tent into a shorter period of time are one and the same thing. Most educators would agree that college courses should not be reduced in content. They would definitely object, however, to the proposal that no abridgment in time is possible or desirable, since it has already been amply shown that individuals learn at highly different rates. Readers may well examine this part of the book with care, since the question of accelerating the postwar programs of institutions of higher education will undoubtedly be vigorously discussed in coming months.

The vital part which academic institutions played in the education of officers for the various branches of the service through the Army Service Training Program and the V-12 programs is comprehensively treated, as is the contribution of these institutions to the elevation and maintenance of civilian morale through public discussion, movies, radio, and the Key Centers of Information and Training. This reviewer believes that the policy of the Navy Department, under the enlightened direction of Captain Forest U. Lake, director of training, in emphasizing the need in the college training programs for liberal, general education, rather than technical courses such as meteorology and navigation, should have received greater emphasis. Those who were involved in the development of these college programs know what a beneficial influence this policy had, not only in the Navy, but in other branches of the services. Another series of events which should have had detailed description occurred during the summer months of 1942. Three groups—the education committee of the War Manpower Commission, under the chairmanship of President Edward C. Elliott of Purdue University; a group of educators appointed by the American Council on Education, headed by President Edmund E. Day of Cornell University; and a group in the United States Office of Education, led by President W. H. Cowley of Hamilton College—were trying, somewhat independently, to develop a plan acceptable to the

military forces which would provide for the full utilization of the colleges and the universities in producing trained personnel for the war effort and which at the same time would preserve these institutions for the future educational needs of America.

The last seventy-five pages of the book describe the steps which the state of New York is taking to adjust to postwar needs the program of higher education in both public and private institutions in the state. Educators and government leaders in every state in the Union ought to study these pages with care. They abound in suggestions of procedure for determining an educational program that makes maximum state aid available without destroying or damaging the fine private institutions which have served the needs of the commonwealth for so many years.

In the concluding chapter, entitled "The Shape of Things To Come," the authors make restrained but helpful suggestions concerning adaptations which may have to be made in the postwar programs of institutions of higher education. This volume constitutes a valuable addition to the literature of higher education and will be useful to those who wish to inform themselves about any one of the many services that academic institutions performed during the war period.

EARL J. MCGRATH

University of Buffalo

GUIDANCE—YESTERDAY, TODAY, AND TOMORROW.—Qualified opinion in regard to guidance and the guidance movement is rare. So much that has been written about this subject merely presents impressions which are neither founded in fact nor in scholarly interpretation. It is, therefore, with a genuine sense of satisfaction and a feeling of profound professional indebtedness that those with scholarly interests in the guidance movement will complete the reading of a re-

cent publication by Professor Anna Y. Reed.¹

The volume is divided into six parts. The first part reviews the history of guidance. Information on educational and occupational opportunities and community resources is presented in the second part. The third part deals with the types of information which are available concerning the individual, and the methods of utilizing informational data are discussed in the fourth part of the book. The fifth part analyzes the various aspects of the organization and administration of guidance. The final part of the publication is devoted to the guidance movement in retrospect and the prospects of its future under intelligent and energetic leadership. Throughout the volume, problems of guidance at the school and the college level, as well as in the community, are presented and evaluated. Guidance problems of individuals of all ages are discussed. The older person, as well as the younger person, is given consideration.

The author is fearless, yet fair, it seems to the reviewer, in her evaluation of the persons and groups of persons who have been associated with the guidance movement across the years.

One gathers the impression that Professor Reed is happier with the outcomes of the educational-guidance movement than with those of the vocational-guidance movement. The lack of a real contribution by two organizations, given much credit by less discerning observers, is best presented in the author's own phrases:

Since its inception it [vocational guidance] has sponsored or been sponsored by several organizations, one of which, the National Occupational Conference, was liberally financed but failed to provide the type of scholarship or leadership essential to command the confidence of its potential beneficiaries. It closed its doors. The

National Vocational Guidance Association, which was the parent guidance organization in this country, has maintained its entity, except for one brief interlude, from 1913 to the present. Its objectives have wavered; it has been the victim at one time or another of publicity-seeking individuals or groups within its own ranks, and it has not attracted the type of critical scholarship which alone can and will evaluate, select, and recommend reliable information, and unhesitatingly discredit, discard, and discourage the publication and dissemination of that great mass of nondescript material which flows from the pens of commercially motivated writers. Although it has enrolled many of the instructors who offer university courses for the preparation of counselors (this instructor accepts her share of the blame), little has been done to improve the content of such courses, to insist that they be staffed only by instructors who are as familiar with the pages of life as they are with the pages of books, or to give practical support and assistance to state departments which are trying to provide guidance services for their schools. Of course, some good work has been done but in the large the scholarship of the movement has been weak, and if the documentary evidence covered in Part I be considered item by item and compared with the status of the movement today, ineffectiveness is found to be a dominant characteristic [pp. 222-23].

Such a quotation is unfair to the author if from it the reader feels that she is entirely negative in her observations. This is not true. Many contributors are praised by the author for their real contributions to a most worthy cause.

Though the book is sizable, not every aspect of the guidance movement nor every contributor to it can be included. In the reviewer's opinion, there are, however, two unfortunate omissions. First, no mention is made in the book of the basic contributions of the Thurstones in providing the tests of primary mental abilities which are far more valuable in relating mental abilities to occupational requirements than is any test of general mental ability. Second, the discussion of counseling in chapter xiv seems to the reviewer somewhat incomplete without some

¹ Anna Y. Reed, *Guidance and Personnel Services in Education*. Ithaca, New York: Cornell University Press, 1944. Pp. xii+496. \$4.75.

reference to the technique advanced by Professor Carl R. Rogers and described in his *Counseling and Psychotherapy*, published in 1942. In so complete a treatise, any such significant omissions seem all the more apparent.

Professor Reed has made a vital contribution to the thinking and the literature of guidance. She has presented new documentary evidence which serves both as history and as an indication for future action. The book presents a more complete over-all view of guidance than any publication to date; it is not only a historical review but a critique and a forward-looking program. It emphasizes the great responsibility of the general administrator for putting into practice a guidance or personnel program. This book should be foremost on the current reading lists of counselors and school administrators, and it will be read with profit by anyone interested in guidance and personnel problems in schools, colleges, industry, or the community.

ROBERT C. WOELLNER

University of Chicago

A SUGGESTION REGARDING PUBLIC RELATIONS.—Securing the active interest and support of the community that it serves is as essential to the successful operation of a school or college as to that of a business organization or an agency of the civil government. The method of approach to its supporting public is the particular aspect of the problem of public relations which challenges each enterprise uniquely, according to the nature of the product or the service that it has to offer. The editor of the public-relations bulletins of a state university has prepared a handy reference volume¹ of personal letters which are illustrative of both the

effective style and the appropriate situations in which such letters may be used to promote good will on behalf of educational institutions.

The significant note in this author's suggestion of the use of personal letters in the public-relations program is his emphasis on the value of sending these letters at times when there is no particular obligation to be met in writing them. In the normal course of events, numerous opportunities become available to the officials of a school or college for sending a pertinent message to one or more persons whose interest in a particular situation or activity is apparent or might possibly be aroused. Suggested types of opportunities are those which provide appropriate occasions for sending letters of announcement of such matters as the acquisition of new facilities, of increases in faculty or student personnel, of the introduction of new courses or changes in institutional practices; letters of invitation to social or academic functions, lectures and conferences, or student-participation programs; letters of compliment on academic recognition, personal achievement, and promotion of public welfare; and letters of appreciation for courtesies and services extended on behalf of the institution or its representatives. Such letters may be sent from time to time, with appropriate choice of person and occasion, to present or prospective students and their parents; to alumni, trustees, and sponsors of the institution; to public officials of the community or region served by the institution; to leaders in civic and business affairs; and to the officers of schools from which new students may be recruited.

Illustrative material presented in this volume includes 256 examples of letters of various content and purpose, many of these having been supplied by officials of more than forty colleges and universities. There are also many specific illustrations of preferred form in relation to particular features of personal letters. In these respects this publication may be regarded as a highly

¹ William H. Butterfield, *How To Use Letters in College Public Relations: A Survey of Principles and Source Book of Effective Examples*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1944. Pp. xiv+182. \$2.50.

serviceable handbook. An especially interesting feature of the book is the section providing a selection of letters suited to the purposes of junior colleges, all of which appear to be the individual contribution of the author.

It should be noted that this volume does not purport to outline a program of public relations for colleges and universities. It deals exclusively with the use of personal letters in such programs. It makes an effective presentation of the method and aim underlying its stated objective. One notes, however, that the situations which prompted the letter-writing exemplified in this collection are all to be classified among those "happy occasions" in connection with which deans, registrars, and counselors are not much worried about the content of the letters contemplated. The point to be observed, however, is that the opportunity for writing should not be overlooked.

NELSON B. HENRY

University of Chicago

GRADED LESSONS IN DRAFTING.—In the modern world of scientific achievement and industrial production, drafting plays an indispensable part. With the pressure for more and still more war goods, it has made a major contribution to the war production problem. It is important as a part of the general education of the young people of today and as a possible future vocation for many. Those persons who do not plan to follow drafting as a vocation will find that the ability to read and to understand drawings and blueprints is a valuable asset. The textbook¹ which is the subject of this review is designed to introduce high-school students to the field of modern drafting.

The first six units of the textbook deal

with the fundamentals of drafting and are designed to provide material for a year's course for the average beginning drafting class which meets one period a day for the year. Starting with the historical background of drafting, these units cover lettering, designs, symbols, orthographic projections, sections, and the various types of pictorial drawing. The material is presented in carefully graded steps which move along rapidly enough to hold the student's interest in each new process.

The latter six units of the book take up specific industrial applications: developing surfaces, machine drafting, architectural drawing, drawing graphs and maps, tracing, making blueprints, and duplicating. These units will provide a full year's course for the average second-year drafting class. There is distinct advantage in having both years' work bound together for reference. If the class meets for two periods throughout the year, the book will be suitable.

At the end of each chapter pertinent questions are asked, topics for discussion are presented, and a selected bibliography is given. The vocabulary of the book is well within the scope of the average high-school pupil. The explanations are clearly stated, and each new topic is introduced with a discussion of its relation to actual use.

The book contains a large quantity of problems adapted to the various levels of ability. The problems are practical, and the drawings are of objects that the student can understand.

The book is planned to appeal to students at the high-school level. The illustrative drawings are new and to the point, and the pictures and illustrations are attractive and up to date. The book is so bound that it will lie open on the desk or drawing table—a feature which is an aid to the student using the book while drawing.

H. O. PEARCE

¹ William H. Johnson and Louis V. Newkirk, *Modern Drafting*. Industrial Arts Education Series. New York: Macmillan Co., 1944. Pp. viii+198. \$1.72.

*Valley City High School
Valley City, North Dakota*

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY,
AND PRACTICE

Education and Society. By Members of the Faculties of the University of California. Berkeley, California: University of California Press, 1944. Pp. viii+196. \$2.50.

McINTOSH, JOHN RANTON. *Learning by Exposure to Wrong Forms in Grammar and Spelling: An Experimental Study of the Effect of Correcting Wrong Forms as a Practice Method.* Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 892. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1944. Pp. 62. \$1.75.

Reading in Relation to Experience and Language. Compiled and edited by William S. Gray. Proceedings of the Conference on Reading Held at the University of Chicago, Vol. VI. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 58. Chicago: Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1944. Pp. viii+226. \$2.50.

WASHBURN, RUTH WENDELL. *Re-education in a Nursery Group: A Study in Clinical Psychology.* Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, Vol. IX, No. 2 (Serial No. 38). Washington 25: Society for Research in Child Development, National Research Council, 1944. Pp. iv+176. \$2.00.

BOOKS FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS
AND PUPILS

Arithmetic for Young America: Grade Three by John R. Clark, Ruth I. Baldwin, and Caroline Hatton Clark, with the co-operation of Monica M. Hoye, pp. vi+314; Grade Four by John R. Clark, Ruth I. Baldwin, and Caroline Hatton Clark, with the co-operation of Monica M. Hoye, pp. vi+298; Grade Five by John R. Clark, Monica M. Hoye, and Caroline Hatton Clark, with the co-operation of Ruth I. Baldwin, pp. vi+314; Grade Six by John R. Clark, Monica M. Hoye, and

Caroline Hatton Clark, with the co-operation of Ruth I. Baldwin, pp. vi+298; Grade Seven by Raleigh Schorling, John R. Clark, and Rolland R. Smith, pp. xiv+368; Grade Eight by Raleigh Schorling, John R. Clark, and Rolland R. Smith, pp. xiv+402. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1944.

EAKIN, MILDRED MOODY. *Getting Acquainted with Jewish Neighbors: A Guide Book for Church School Leaders of Children.* New York: Macmillan Co., 1944. Pp. x+100. \$1.00.

FAULKNER, HAROLD U., and STARR, MARK. *Labor in America. The American Way.* New York: Harper & Bros., 1944. Pp. xiv+306. \$1.60.

PARKHURST, CHARLES CHANDLER, assisted by ALICE AMELIA BLAIS. *English for Business.* New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1944. Pp. xiv+440. \$2.25.

REINES, BERNARD J. *For Country and Mankind: Twelve Plays about Dreams That Came True.* New York: Longmans, Green & Co., Inc., 1944. Pp. x+242. \$2.25.

SAVIDGE, ANNE LANE, and HORN, GUNNAR. *Handbook for High School Journalism.* Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1944 (revised and enlarged). Pp. 134. \$1.50.

PUBLICATIONS IN PAMPHLET FORM

Carpet and Rug Repair. U.S. Department of Agriculture, Farmers' Bulletin No. 1960. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1944. Pp. 16.

"Carrying American Ideals into Action: Self-discipline, Mutual Understanding, and Spiritual Purpose." A Report of the Intertown Committee on Character Education Representing the Schools of Greater Hartford. Hartford, Connecticut: Board of Education (249 High Street), 1944. Pp. 54 (mimeographed).

Commercial Supplementary Teaching Materials: A Discussion of Aids to Teaching

- as *Furnished by Business Institutions*. Washington 6: Consumer Education Study of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, National Education Association. Pp. 24.
- Cooking Dehydrated Vegetables*. Issued by the Bureau of Human Nutrition and Home Economics, Agricultural Research Administration, United States Department of Agriculture. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1944. Pp. 20.
- Education for Work and for Citizenship*. Review of Educational Research, Vol. XIV, No. 4. Washington 6: American Educational Research Association, 1944. Pp. 285-364.
- EDUCATIONAL POLICIES COMMISSION. *A Program for the Education of Returning Veterans*. Washington 6: Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators. Pp. 40.
- MANUEL, HERSCHEL T. *Preparation for Guidance*. Research Bulletin No. 20 of the Texas Commission on Coordination in Education. Austin, Texas: Administrative Board of the Texas Commission on Coordination in Education, University Station, 1944. Pp. 12.
- Motion Pictures for Postwar Education*. Prepared by the Commission on Motion Pictures in Education. American Council on Education Studies, Vol. VIII. Series I—Reports of Committees and Conferences, No. 21. Washington: American Council on Education, 1944. Pp. vi+24. \$0.20.
- A Papal Peace Mosaic, 1878-1944: Excerpts from the Messages of Popes Leo XIII, Pius X, Benedict XV, Pius XI, and Pius XII*. Compiled by the Rev. Harry C. Koenig, S.T.D. Pamphlet No. 33. Washington 5: Catholic Association for International Peace (1312 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W.), 1944. Pp. 64. \$0.10.
- "Planning the Instructional Program for the Future." Report of the Idaho, Montana, Oregon, and Washington Fall Conferences Sponsored by the Northwest Society for Supervision and Curriculum Development, October-November, 1943. Olympia, Washington: Northwest Society for Supervision and Curriculum Development (Vernon E. Anderson, executive secretary, % State Office of Public Instruction). Pp. 38 (mimeographed).
- A School Project on Consumer's Cooperation as an Aid for Teaching the Subject in Schools*. Chicago 5: Cooperative League of the U.S.A. (608 South Dearborn Street). Pp. 23. \$0.10.

